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ABSTRACT

This is a training module designed to help teachers convey expectations that lead to academic success among students, especially minority girls. The module was based on the recognition that low teacher expectations have contributed significantly to many minority girls' failure to achieve as much academic success as other students in American schools. The module consists of three units, each of which contains 1) a content outline; 2) suggested steps for teaching the content; 3) opening exercises to introduce concepts and ideas; 4) resource information from which the trainer can develop lectures; 5) group activities to reinforce concepts introduced in the lecture; and 6) exercises to help individual trainees gain a more in-depth understanding of key concepts. The units allow teachers to identify examples of teacher expectations; examine how expectations influence educational progress; identify sources of expectations; distinguish between realistic and biased expectations; and sharpen skills in communicating clear, realistic expectations to students. An annotated bibliography includes selected resources on race and sex bias in instructional materials, career guidance for minority girls, and background information on minority women. (Author/MJL)

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SHAPING TEACHER EXPECTATIONS FOR MINORITY GIRLS

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UD 022 253

A Teacher Training Module

SHAPING TEACHER EXPECTATIONS FOR MINORITY GIRLS

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For
Women's Educational Equity Act Program
U.S. Department Of Education

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Preface

This teacher training module is based on a thorough review of the literature and on the experiences of a multi-cultural design team largely comprised of educators. The staff met with members of the design team at various intervals in the project to explore the effect of teacher expectations in their own lives and to help conceptualize a training module that would be effective in shaping teacher expectations. The module was reviewed by all members of the design team and by twenty experts in the field. The following people served on the team and made valuable contributions to the project.

Bonnie J. Cain
Faye Coleman
Deborah Frisby
Cheryl Jones
David Kahler
Charito Kruvant
Mimi Tse

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D.T.D.
B.L.B.
L.G.

INTRODUCTION

Shaping Teacher Expectations For Minority Girls is a training module designed to insure that the expectations teachers convey to students, particularly minority girls, lead to challenge, success and maximum learning. The need for this module grew out of a recognition that minority girls have traditionally failed to achieve academic success on a par with other students in American schools and that low teacher expectations have been a serious factor contributing to this situation.

Background

Research has documented the low educational achievement levels of minority women but also has indicated that low achievement levels are not necessarily the result of low levels of academic ability. Rather, low teacher, family and community expectations often impact upon a girl's self-concept leading her to de-emphasize academic excellence. Consider the following:

- Fifteen, sixteen and seventeen year olds who are two or more years behind the appropriate grade level are overwhelmingly minority students. When minority females were compared to majority females in 1976, delayed education rates were 1.9 times greater for Native American women; .8 times greater for black women, 1.7 times greater for Mexican American women; and 2.0 times greater for Puerto Rican women. Japanese and Chinese American females fared better than the majority females.[1]
- Mexican American women drop out of school at a higher rate than Mexican American males.[2]
- Only 55 percent of Hispanic females complete the full four years of secondary school.[3]
- Many female drop-outs have tested ability levels that indicate they could have succeeded easily at the next educational level.[4]
- Only 9 percent of the Hispanic females who entered two year colleges in 1972 had completed their programs in 1974; 47 percent had dropped out.[5]

- In 1976, Puerto Rican and black females were more likely to be out of school than their male counterparts.[6]
- Of all academic degrees awarded, Asian, Hispanic, and Native American women receive a smaller proportion than their male counterparts.[7]

It is clear from the data that, having to contend with a dual discrimination based on both sex and race, minority girls suffer substantially more than other groups academically. Racial and ethnic minority women are not born with the expectation of failure. These expectations develop as a result of socialization practices and the expectations communicated to them at home, in the community, by the media, and in school.

In schools, teachers expect minority female students to be less competent, less capable and less likely to achieve academic excellence. Low teacher expectations result in their limiting the opportunities available to minority females. Rita Bornstein writes: "Our expectations for women and minorities limit these groups to a narrow range of behaviors and opportunities despite our professional ideal of equality."[8] The low expectations on the part of a teacher, in turn cause the student to lower expectations for herself. Studies have revealed the connection between teacher attitudes and learning outcomes for minority students.[9] Brophy describes the cycle of low expectations perpetuated by teacher actions and student conduct and reports that learning gains are directly related to high teacher expectations for both low and high socioeconomic status groups.[10]

A recent study revealed that teachers of high school students give more constructive criticism (related to work) to students for whom they have high expectations, while they give more positive feedback (related to personal behavior) to students for whom their expectations are low. The academic performance of the first group of students remains significantly superior to that of the second. Teachers evidently believe that able students can and will correct their work and improve their performance, and this expectation is realized.[11] Teachers are likely to be unaware of their low expectations and related feedback behaviors, as well as the fact that girls and minority students are often the recipients of the low expectation communication. It appears that teacher-differentiated treatment prevents minority and female students from reaching their full academic potential. Low expectations often limit the quality and length of education for females and these are important factors in their future economic situation.[12]

Teacher expectations and the communication of these expectations play a major role in encouraging students to realize their full academic potentials. For this reason, it is critical that teachers understand the importance of developing and commmunicating positive expectations which will help minority females find challenge and attain success in their learning.

Contents

Shaping Teacher Expectations for Minority Girls presents a series of learning exercises which help teachers become aware of the issues, identify problems and needs, and initiate activities which will make them more effective in teaching minority females. The module is divided into three units, which are followed by an annotated bibibliography.

RAISING THE ISSUE. Unit I. Teachers are asked to identify examples of teacher expectancy based on personal experience and to examine how these expectations influenced their educational progress. A model for understanding teacher expectancy is presented.

FORMING EXPECTATIONS. Unit II. This unit helps teachers to identify sources of expectations and to distinguish between realistic and biased expectations.

COMMUNICATING EXPECTATIONS. Unit III. Teachers identify their own strengths and weaknesses in communicating expectations to students. They select and try several actions or techniques designed to help them sharpen their skills in communicating clear, realistic expectations for students.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY. This bibliography of selected resources for promoting educational equity for minority females focuses on four areas:

- The Identification of Race and Sex Biases in Instructional Materials;
- Counseling, Career Education and Guidance of Minority Girls;
- Background Information about Minority Women of Various Ethnic Groups;
- Other Resources.

Using the Module

The training module includes three units which form a progressive learning sequence with each unit building upon the learning of the previous unit(s).

Each unit requires a minimum of two and a half to three hours for presentation. For most effective use, the units should be presented on consecutive days. If this is not feasible, the trainer should review salient points from the previous session(s), make linkages wherever possible, and provide notes/summaries/outlines of the activities previously covered.

Each of the three units contains the following:

- **A Content Outline** containing a unit summary;
- **Instructions for Trainers** suggesting steps for teaching the content;
- **Opening Exercises** designed to introduce concepts and ideas and to stimulate discussion;

- **A Lecture Resource** providing information to be used by the trainer to develop a lecture which reinforces and expands upon the ideas developed during the opening exercises or to introduce key concepts in the unit;
- **Follow-up Exercises** containing group activities designed to reinforce concepts introduced in the lecture;
- **Individual Exercises** designed to be used by individual trainees outside the classroom to gain a more in-depth understanding of key concepts.

The training exercises are designed to be used in a workshop setting which promotes maximum trainee participation. Because the **process** of training is as crucial as the **content** of training, the exercises incorporate a variety of participatory activities including role plays, case studies, and small group discussions.

Training is most effective when the trainees are active participants in the learning process, rather than just passive receptors of information. Trainers should facilitate trainee participation and learning by:

- *Sharing with the trainees the specific unit goals and objectives.* Effective training involves developing a shared group commitment to the goals and objectives.
- *Drawing on the participants' experiences.* Training is made meaningful by drawing on the personal experiences and observations of the participants and relating concepts to personal situations and experiences.
- *Emphasizing the development of skills rather than the memorization of answers.* Learning is the process of assimilating and accommodating new information and making use of this information to improve skills. Effective training focuses on solutions and skills improvement, not just the provision of a volume of data and subject matter.
- *Encouraging trainees' active involvement* in role plays, small group analysis of data, discussions and case studies.
- *Allowing trainees to draw conclusions.* Trainers should provide the information, data and examples needed to permit the trainees to see patterns/trends, to make generalizations, and to draw conclusions. This learner-centered analysis makes the conclusions more meaningful to the trainees than if they had been developed and stated by the trainer alone.
- *Using the lecture resource to reinforce trainee observations/conclusions and to respond to questions generated by trainees during the opening exercises or to introduce key concepts.* The trainer should use the lecture as a vehicle for providing information and should encourage trainee feedback after the presentation.
- *Pacing activities* to maintain attention and yet allow time for processing information. When attention lags, the trainers may ask questions that stimulate group participation, shift to another activity that requires more active involvement, or

suggest a break. Being responsive to trainees' interests and needs requires the trainer to be flexible and to make necessary shifts in content, procedures or emphasis.

The activities, materials, and background information pieces which comprise this module are intended to be used by trainers to develop effective training sessions. A high degree of flexibility has been built in to permit trainers to select and/or modify the particular exercises and sequence of exercises to best meet the specific needs of trainees, within their time, budget and space restrictions.

The authors hope that trainers will find the module an appropriate and effective way of helping teachers understand the importance of communicating positive expectations for minority girls and to strengthen communication skills to convey positive expectations.

Footnotes

[1] *Social Indicators of Equality for Minorities and Women.* 1978. Washington, D.C. U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. p. 6.

[2] Cotera, M. 1976. *Profile of the Mexican American Woman.* University Park, New Mexico: New Mexico State University. p. 122. ERIC ED 11 9888.

[3] *The American High School: A Statistical Overview. 1980.* Washington, D.C.: The National Center for Education Statistics. p. 12.

[4] Gilmartin, K.J. 1979. *The Status of Women and Minorities in Education.* Technical Report 3. Palo Alto, California: American Institutes for Research in the Behavioral Sciences. p. 16. ERIC ED 183457.

[5] Brown, G.H. and Olivas, M.A. 1980. *The Condition of Education for Hispanic Americans.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

[6] Wirtenberg et al. 1981. Sex equity in American education, *Educational Leadership* 38: 314.

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] Bornstein, R. 1979. The education of women: protection or liberation, *Educational Leadership* p. 36: 331.

[9] Weinberg, M. 1977. *Minority Students: A Research Appraisal.* Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education.

[10] Brophy, J.E. 1975. *Reflections on Research in Elementary Schools.* Paper presented at the Conference of Teacher Effects: An Examination by Policy-Makers and Researchers, Austin, Texas.

[11] Means, V., Moore, J.W., Gagne, E. and Hauck, W. 1979. The interactive effects of consonant and dissonant teacher expectancy and feedback communication on student performance in a natural school setting, *American Educational Research Journal* 16: 367-373.

[12] Verheyden-Hilliard, M.E. 1976. Double discrimination against minority girls and women. In *A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality in Education.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. p. 12.

Unit I

RAISING THE ISSUE

A Content Outline

Introducing the Unit

Opening Exercises

Exercise I-1 *Expectancy: Examples from Experience* is an exercise which helps teachers relate the concept of expectancy to their personal experiences.

Exercise I-2 *Expectancy: Sample Experiences* is an opening exercise designed to encourage teachers to explore the concept of expectancy.

Lecture Resource I

Building a Model for Understanding Teacher Expectations provides background information and presents a model for understanding how expectations influence teacher behavior and student performance.

Follow-up Exercise

Exercise I-3 *Considering Current Attitudes* is a series of short cases that enables teachers to explore differential expectations based on race and sex.

Individual Exercises

Exercise I-4 *Race and Sex Differences — Fact and Myth* is a self-test that encourages teachers to explore some facts and myths concerning race and sex differences.

Exercise I-5 *Enlarging the American Dream* is an article that will help teachers to become aware of the cultural differences and the educational and occupational experiences and needs of Puerto Rican, Mexican American, black, Asian and Native American women.

Instructions For Trainers

Introducing Unit I

RAISING THE ISSUE

1. Welcome participants and introduce trainers.
2. Review the training schedule.
3. State the objectives of Unit I. Explain to the group that the exercises included in Unit I will enable them to:
   - Build awareness of the problems created for learners when teachers convey low expectations;
   - Develop a basic understanding of expectancy;
   - Learn how expectancy is demonstrated in the classroom;
   - Define teacher expectancy;
   - Describe a model for understanding teacher expectancy;
   - Generate examples of teacher expectancy based on personal experience;
   - Identify some ways in which expectancy messages commmunicated to them influenced their own educational progress;
   - Acquire information on the impact of dual discrimination based on race or ethnicity and sex.
4. Begin the opening exercises.

Notes:

OPENING EXERCISES

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise I-1

EXPECTANCY —EXAMPLES FROM EXPERIENCE

1. Explain to the group that in this opening exercise they will be looking at their own experiences with expectancy messages.
2. Distribute the exercises.
3. Ask participants to reflect on their own experiences with expectancy messages.
4. Allow 5-10 minutes for them to record their responses.
5. Encourage participants to share their experiences with the group. You might pose the following questions:
   - In what ways were the individual examples of expectancy alike or different?
   - How did individuals feel about the experience?
   - How did teacher expectancy influence student learning?
   - What have we learned about feelings and expectancy?

Notes:

Exercise I-1

EXPECTANCY —EXAMPLES FROM EXPERIENCE

Instructions

When others let you know what they expect you to do or how well they expect you to do it, they are conveying "expectancy messages." Think about your own experience as a child or adult and briefly describe a situation where you received expectancy messages. As you think about/describe this experience, try to answer the following questions.

1. Were the expectancy messages in your case positive or negative?

2. Were the expectancy messages in your case biased or realistic? How could you tell?

3. In what verbal and nonverbal ways were the expectancy messages communicated?

4. How did you feel or respond to the expectancy messages?

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise I-2

EXPECTANCY –SAMPLE EXPERIENCES

1. Explain to the group that this second opening exercise is designed to encourage them to further explore the concept of expectancy.
2. Explain to the participants that they will be examining three vignettes and responding to a series of questions.
3. Divide into smaller groups of 3-5 people each.
4. Distribute one of the vignettes in Exercise I-2 to each group for analysis.
5. Ask participants to read the vignette and think about the questions individually, then discuss the vignette and questions in their small group.
6. Convene the groups and have each one give a brief summary of what they discovered about expectations in the particular situation outlined in the vignette their group studied.
7. Ask the group to make some generalizations about expectations and expectancy messages. Record their list of generalizations/statements on a flipchart, newsprint or blackboard so all can see.

Notes:

Exercise I-2

EXPECTANCY —SAMPLE EXPERIENCES

Vignette 1

Instructions

Read the following vignette and respond to the questions below:

Black female — Junior High School

At the beginning of seventh grade I wrote a composition which according to the teacher was "too good" to have been written by me. The day she returned the compositions, she made me stay after class and write another composition. She was giving me a second chance since I could not have written the first one on my own. I was hurt. All my previous teachers had complimented me on my compositions.

Since the second composition was also good, she ignored me from then on.

Questions to Consider

1. What messages were conveyed by the teacher to the student?

2. How do you think the student felt?

3. Were the teacher's expectations/expectancy messages negative or positive?

4. How did the teacher's expectancy influence her behavior?

5. If you were the teacher, how would you have handled this situation?

Exercise I-2

EXPECTANCY —SAMPLE EXPERIENCES

Vignette 2

Instructions

Read the following vignette and respond to the questions below:

Chinese female — Senior High School

I came to the United States and I was enrolled in 9th grade in a public school. From the very beginning, I was put in honors courses and after that I was counseled into advanced math and science courses. I was expected to be both motivated and to excel in those subjects. I was never discouraged from high level academic courses. I always got good grades.

Questions to Consider

1. What message was conveyed by the teacher to the student?

2. How do you think the student felt?

3. Were the teacher's expectations/expectancy messages negative or positive?

4. How did the teacher's expectancy influence the student's behavior? The student's performance?

5. What is the stereotype implicit in this vignette? Do you believe it to be true?

Exercise I-2

EXPECTANCY —SAMPLE EXPERIENCES

Vignette 3

Instructions

Read the following vignette and respond to the questions below:

Native American — Senior High School

When Elva Benson was growing up in Shiprock, she went to see her high school counselor, an Anglo, and told him she wanted to go to college. He handed her some ready information about the University of Mexico and Arizona State College. Then she asked if she could find out about some eastern schools.

*"You don't think you're really capable of that!" he said.**

Questions to Consider

1. What message was conveyed by the school counselor to the student?

2. How do you think the student felt?

3. Were the counselor's expectations/expectancy messages negative or positive?

4. How did the counselor's expectancy influence his behavior?

5. If you had been the counselor, what would you have done?

*Wood, B. and Barry, T. 1978. The story of three Navajo women, *Integrated Education* 16(2): p. 35.

Instructions For Trainers

Lecture Resource I

BUILDING A MODEL FOR UNDERSTANDING TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

Before You Begin . . .

1. Read through the lecture resource paper, *Building A Model For Understanding Teacher Expectations*, and become familiar with the content.
2. Identify and review sources cited to expand your own knowledge of teacher expectations.
3. Decide ahead of time the most important points you want to present.
4. Prepare charts and/or transparencies which outline the six stages of the Model for Understanding Teacher Expectations and the definition of expectancy.
5. Duplicate the Lecture Resource paper to be distributed after the lecture.

Conducting the Lecture . . .

6. Explain to the group that you will provide them with information on teacher expectations and their influence on the academic performance of students as evidenced by research studies of teacher expectancy.
7. Define expectancy as

   A conscious or unconscious evaluation which one person makes of another which leads the evaluator to treat the person evaluated in a manner as though the assessment were correct and to anticipate that the person evaluated will act in a manner consistent with the assessment.
8. Cite some of the research and findings.

Notes:

9. Identify and list the factors which research has found to affect academic performance:
   - Self-esteem;
   - Socialization;
   - Educational opportunity;
   - Performance evaluation.
10. Allow time for participant clarification questions but do not spend a lot of time on individual situations. Participants will have an opportunity to get into this in subsequent activities.
11. Discuss the six stages of the Model for Understanding Teacher Expectations using a transparency or a large chart to enhance your presentation.
12. If possible, post the list of statements regarding expectation/expectancy messages which the group generated during Exercise I-2 as well as the "official" definition which has been recorded on a flip chart, newsprint, blackboard, etc.

After the lecture . . .

13. Facilitate a group discussion which addresses the following questions:
   - How does the definition of expectancy compare with what you had in mind during the opening exercises?
   - Examine the model for understanding teacher expectancies which arose during the opening exercises. How did the model help clarify your thinking?
   - Can you think of any other steps, variables or considerations which should be incorporated into the model?
   - What questions about expectancy still remain for you?

Lecture Resource I

BUILDING A MODEL FOR UNDERSTANDING TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

"An expectancy, or expectation set, is a conscious or unconscious evaluation which one person forms of another, or of himself, which leads the evaluator to treat the person evaluated in a manner as though the assessment were correct. Further, he will anticipate that the person evaluated will act in a manner consistent with the assessment." [1] Expectations are formed daily in communications at home, at school at work, and in social settings. One powerful source of expectation messages for children is the classroom teacher. Teacher expectations have been identified as an important factor in student success and in student failure.

Research Background

Although it was not the first study of teacher expectation effects, or the self-fulfilling prophecy as it was called, *Pygmalion in the Classroom* [2] sparked a tremendous interest in the subject. Experimenters in a controlled situation told teachers that their groups of students were "bloomers." Based on IQ scores, teachers were told that these children would excel. Although the data were entirely fictional, the children labelled as "bloomers" did attain higher scores on post-tests. Rosenthal and Jacobson called this effect of teacher expectations on student behavior, the "Pygmalion Effect."

Replications of the Pygmalion study contradicted the study's findings, but subsequent research, which was more rigorous and complex than the Pygmalion design, began revealing solid information about the existence and impact of teacher expectations on student performance. Coupled with the findings regarding the failure of females to achieve their potential for success in school, teacher expectancy research has helped to build an understanding of the factors affecting the academic performance of girls and young women.

Self-Esteem is a variable that is important to student success. At the preschool level, the self-esteem differences associated with ethnicity and gender are very small. [3] But the differences do begin to appear as students are exposed to negative expectancy messages. While the self-concepts of black youth are becoming more positive, black females continue to score highest on measures of alienation. [4]

Females in grades three to twelve are more internally controlled (as opposed to externally controlled by others or by the environment) and higher in achievement motivation than males [5] but as young women, they are more self-effacing [6] and have a greater tendency to explain their performance as a function of luck. [7] When they are underachievers, grade six females evaluate themselves as low in social relations; they lack a sense of accomplishment, they anticipate failure, and they manifest feelings of social rejection. Social rejection is not a concern for underachieving boys. [8] Among the factors related to external orientations in undergraduate females, is a low expectation for gaining love and affection. Again, this is not a concern to young men. [9]

Although they get better grades in high school, white females are less likely to attend college than white males. [10] Those women who do attend college often indicate that they are not expected to achieve too much or to aspire to professional ranks. [11] Yet, "women are as capable, if not more so, as men of succeeding in business and academic programs. In none of the areas investigated did men outperform women; in several instances, women appeared to be academically superior to men." [12] The consequences of underachievement are substantial. The negative economic impact on women coupled with the psychological impact of reduced independence and self-reliance make lack of education a life-time disability.

Socialization is another factor in academic success. If women are as capable as men, how can their comparatively low performance be explained? Starting in elementary school, boys receive poorer grades, repeat classes more often, have more problems related to behavior and achievement, score lower on achievement tests, are more often punished for disruptive behavior, are more criticized by the teacher, have more teacher contacts, do not accept teachers' oppression, blame others for their failures, and receive more direct questions. By junior high and high school, boys have more contact with the teacher and high achieving boys receive the most favorable treatment. [13] Girls, on the other hand, receive more approval, accept oppression and become passive, resort to social acceptance when they do not do well academically, win teacher approval by conforming to sex role stereotypes, and experience more positive contacts with teachers. [14] Life in school appears to be relatively easy for girls — *a conditioning for non-assertiveness and a conditioning, perhaps, for performance that is below potential.* This is confirmed by the fact that girls' early advantage over boys is not sustained in later years. [15]

Educational Opportunity must also be considered. Finn, Dulberg and Reis found that universally women are educationally disadvantaged. The authors state: "To deny to one sex the full range of course contents, adult sex-role models, and the benefits associated with the highest expectations and support for their performance, is to deny them equal opportunity. . . ." [16]

When **Evaluating Performance,** professionals give black students lower evaluations of academic performance than they give whites. After reviewing formal studies of teacher expectations in interracial settings, Weinberg concludes: "Studies of teacher attitudes suggest strongly a generally negative orientation toward minority children. Empirical analyses of interracial classrooms demonstrate the practical consequences of negative teacher attitudes." [17] "Despite efforts to counteract prejudice, it appears that prejudice may still affect the judgments that have important implications for students in a society where academic achievement is a key to success." [18]

In the preceding quotes two phrases stand out: "expectations" and the "judgments made by professionals." Teacher expectations are among the major factors which contribute to the failure of minority women to achieve the academic success that they are capable of achieving.

A Model For Understanding Teacher Expectations

Researchers are beginning to demonstrate that teacher expectancy is part of a cyclical pattern of student-teacher interactions. A model for understanding these interactions appears in Figure 1.

At the beginnning of the cycle (box 1) are **INPUTS.** These are the bits of information that contribute to a teacher's expectations for a child. These natural inputs or pieces of information on students may come directly from the student in the form of physical characteristics, behavior, academic performance, socioeconomic status or other data. Teachers also get information from records, from parents, and from other school personnel. Student data and data from other sources combine to create input for teacher expectations.

The second stage of the cycle (box 2) is the formation of **TEACHER EXPECTATIONS** for students. These expectations can be of two types: realistic or biased.

Realistic expectations are desirable and should not inhibit the students' likelihood of achieving their potential. **Biased** (negative) expectations, on the other hand, are not desirable because they may inhibit students' capabilities of achieving maximum success. Positive expectations when unrealistic can also be undesirable. Such unrealistic expectations can make students feel inadequate because they cannot meet the high expectations others have of them.

At the third point in the cycle (box 3) are **MEDIATING TEACHER BEHAVIORS.** Teacher expectations in many cases are the basis for teacher behavior. A teacher who has biased expectations may be aware of those biases and because of this knowledge may endeavor to relate to students equitably. However, biased expectations may lead to differential teacher behavior. In this case, the teacher is communicating biased (high or low) expectations to students.

The fourth event in the cycle (box 4) is **STUDENT RESPONSES.** Students may respond to the teacher in such a way that they confirm expectations the teacher holds. In this case, they become the products of the self-fulfilling prophecy. Some students may not pay attention to the unacceptable expectations that teachers communicate to them; thus, they may effectively stop the negative cycle and create expectations for themselves that are positive and fair.

The fifth stage in the cycle of expectations (box 5) is **OUTPUTS.** Outputs include the students' academic performance, social behavior and expressions of their psychological conditions. Research has linked the various **Outputs,** and the expression of them to a number of factors, including the preceding inputs, expectations and teacher and student behaviors.

Finally, the cycle contains a **FEEDBACK LOOP** (line 6). Student outputs return to the teacher in the form of inputs and the cycle goes on. Brophy and Good found substantial evidence of the self-fulfilling prophecy theories and describe this chain of events: teacher expectations lead to teacher differential behavior which leads students to confirm teacher expectations. Differential performance shows up in achievement tests and a cycle is set in motion. Negative expectations lead to negative results and underachievement: positive expectations lead to positive results and achievement. [19]

After reviewing the literature Braun reports:

> *Certainly, teacher training courses and inservice programs should sensitize teachers to the potent dynamics of these 'input' factors since they trigger specific 'output' action for individual child programming. Teachers need to be sensitized to the biases and stereotypes they hold and encouraged to examine these seriously in relation to their classroom behavior. After all, it is the 'teacher's expectation of the pupil' and the vicious cycle it triggers that will determine largely the child's self-image, and ultimately academic success or failure.* [20]

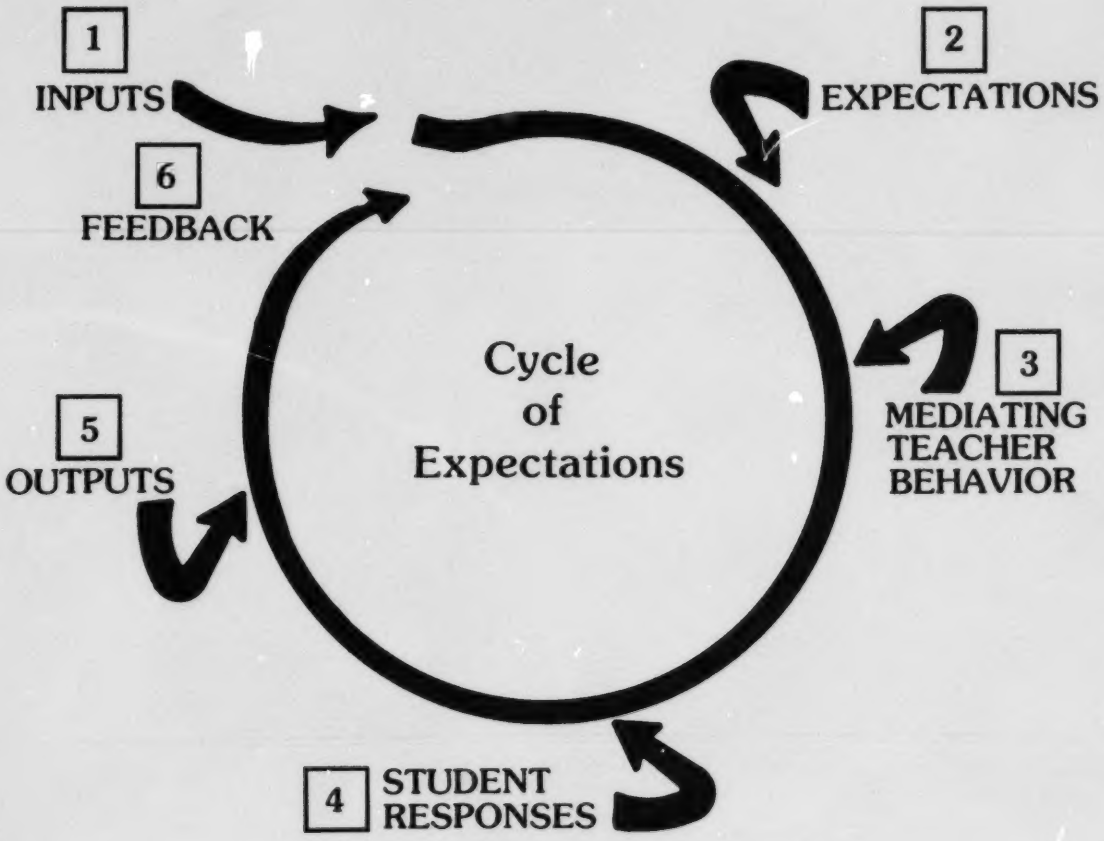
Cooper also reinforces the cyclical nature of the model for describing expectancy. Expectations, according to Cooper, begin with variation in student ability and background. Teachers behave differently toward low-expectation and high-expectation students. Low-expectation students begin to feel that effort will not influence the outcome; they become less persistent and begin to fail. [21]

Based on her own research, Lightfoot emphasizes that

> *the perspectives of teachers — their personal, cultural, and educational histories; their values, attitudes, beliefs, and goals; their professional skills and experiences — influence their pedagogical and procedural decisions, as well as the dynamic patterns of interaction and social structure which develop in the classroom.* [22]

Figure 1.

A MODEL FOR UNDERSTANDING TEACHER EXPECTATIONS



INPUTS

A. Controlled
   1. IQ
   2. ability
   3. other
B. Naturalistic
   1. student
      - physical characteristics
      - behavior
      - academic performance
   2. other sources
      - records
      - parents
      - teachers

EXPECTATIONS

A. Realistic
B. Biased

MEDIATING TEACHER BEHAVIOR

A. Equitable
B. Differential
   - positive
   - negative

STUDENT RESPONSES

A. Dependent on Teacher Behavior
B. Independent of Teacher Behavior

OUTPUTS

A. Academic Performance
B. Social Behavior
C. Psychological Expressions

Footnotes

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[21]Cooper, H.M. 1979. Pygmalion grows up: a model for teacher expectation communication and performance influence, *Review of Educational Research* 49: 389.

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FOLLOW-UP EXERCISE

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

1. Explain to the group that in this follow-up exercise they will examine pairs of case studies which are identical except for the ethnicity of the main character and that this activity is designed to help them clarify thoughts, feelings, values, attitudes or beliefs regarding the interaction of sex, race and expectations. (Four pairs of case studies are provided for the trainer's use.)
2. Depending on the size of the group, divide into two, four, six or eight small groups.
3. Distribute the case studies so that each group will get either case *a* or *b* of a pair of cases.
4. Instruct the groups to read the case and respond to the question, answer the question then follow the directions.
5. Pair the groups so that the group which had Case 1a is with the group that had Case 1b; the group which had 2a is with the group that had 2b, etc., and have each one share their responses.
6. Facilitate a group discussion, using the following questions as a guide:
   - What common or contradictory assumptions did individuals make?
   - What data were the most important cues to which individuals responded?
   - What was surprising about the responses of others?
   - What did the exercise illustrate with regard to teacher expectations?
   - What generalizations/conclusions can we make regarding teacher expectations?

Notes:

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 1a*

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in your group.

Pat is just graduating from an all-black city high school. Five foot nine, trim and athletic, Pat has excelled in track, winning several intramural competitions. Pat is also a school leader, vice-president of the senior class, and extremely popular with both female and male students. Without too much effort Pat has managed to graduate tenth in a class of 200.

Which of the following alternatives do you think is the most likely for Pat? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Pat will go to college.
- Pat will decide to go to work right after graduation.
- Pat will get married and work while raising her children.

*Based on a case presented in *Strategies for Equality: Guidance, Social Studies, Physical Education*. 1978. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers, The State University, ERIC ED162027.

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 1b*

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in your group.

Pat is just graduating from high school. Five foot nine, trim and athletic, Pat has excelled in track, winning several intramural competitions. Pat is also a school leader, vice-president of the senior class, and extremely popular with both female and male students. With not too much effort, Pat has managed to graduate tenth in a class of 200.

Which of the following alternatives do you think is the most likely for Pat? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Pat will go to college.
- Pat will decide to go to work right after graduation.
- Pat will get married and work while raising her children.

*Based on a case presented in *Strategies for Equality: Guidance, Social Studies, Physical Education*. 1978. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers, The State University, ERIC ED162027.

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 2a

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in your group.

Alice is a sixth grader. She is an Hispanic girl who has some problems in reading and is behind in mathematics. How do you think she will do in high school?

Which of the following alternatives do you think is the most likely for Alice? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Alice will be enrolled in classes for slow learners.
- Alice will get special help and will do fairly well in high school.
- Alice will drop out of school by ninth grade.

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 2b

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in your group.

Alice is a sixth grader. She is a white girl who has some problems in reading and is behind in mathematics. How do you think she will do in high school?

Which of the following alternatives do you think is the most likely for Alice? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Alice will be enrolled in classes for slow learners.
- Alice will get special help and will do fairly well in high school.
- Alice will drop out of school by ninth grade.

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 3a

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in the group.

At the end of the first term finals, Anne, an Asian woman of Chinese descent, finds herself in the middle of her medical school class. What do you think she will be doing ten years from now?

Which of the following alternatives do you think is the most likely for Anne? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Ten years from now Anne will have dropped out of medical school and become a nurse instead.
- Ten years from now Anne will have finished medical school and will be working as a researcher.
- Ten years from now Anne will have become a pediatrician and be a private physician.

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 3b

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in the group.

At the end of the first term finals, Anne, a Native American woman from South Dakota, finds herself in the middle of her medical school class. What do you think she will be doing ten years from now?

Which of the following alternatives do you think is the most likely for Anne? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Ten years from now Anne will have dropped out of medical school and become a nurse instead.
- Ten years from now Anne will have finished medical school and will be working as a researcher.
- Ten years from now Anne will have become a pediatrician and be a private physician.

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 4a

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in your group.

Michelle is an active thirteen year old black girl. She is very well coordinated and excels in all the sports events and activities offered at her junior high school. Most of the events are intramural with relatively informal teams and arrangements. Michelle is excited about going to a high school where girls' sports receive quite a lot of support and encouragement.

Since she will not have the time to join every girls' team or club, which of the following do you think her advisor/coach/counselor will encourage her to pursue? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Track
- Tennis
- Basketball

Exercise I-3

CONSIDERING CURRENT ATTITUDES

Case 4b

Instructions

1. Read the following case study and record your responses at the end of the case.
2. Share your responses with others in your group.

Michelle is an active thirteen year old white girl. She is very well coordinated and excels in all the sports events and activities offered at her junior high school. Most of the events are intramural with relatively informal teams and arrangements. Michelle is excited about going to a high school where girls' sports receive quite a lot of support and encouragement.

Since she will not have the time to join every girls' team or club, which of the following do you think her advisor/coach/counselor will encourage her to pursue? Give reasons for choosing that alternative.

- Track
- Tennis
- Basketball

INDIVIDUAL EXERCISES

Exercise I-4

RACE AND SEX DIFFERENCES —FACT AND MYTH

A Self Test

Instructions

Often we are surprised to discover what we do and do not know about race and sex differences. Examine the following statements and select true or false. (The answer key follows.)

T F 1. Girls are more socially oriented than boys.

T F 2. Girls have greater verbal ability than boys.

T F 3. In 1975, unemployment was lowest for white adult males and highest for minority teenage girls.

T F 4. Ninety percent of families headed by minority women earn incomes above the poverty level.

T F 5. Girls are more susceptible to peer influence than are boys.

T F 6. Girls have lower self-esteem than boys.

T F 7. Boys do better in mathematics than girls.

T F 8. Females and minority students tend to drop out of mathematics as soon as they can.

T F 9. Girls perform better at simple repetitious tasks; boys do better at tasks that are more cognitively oriented.

T F 10. Although all minority women fall behind white males at school, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American, and Native American females suffer the greatest disadvantage.

T F 11. The minority woman is at the bottom of the income ladder whether one discusses sex membership or minority membership.

T F 12. Boys are more analytical than girls.

T F 13. Males are more aggressive than females.

T F 14. Girls obtain higher grades than boys all through school.

T F 15. Girls lack achievement motivation.

T F 16. Boys score higher than girls on standardized achievement tests in math, science and social studies.

T F 17. Girls excel in reading and writing all through school.

T F 18. All female populations, non-white and white, earn less income on the average than majority males.

T F 19. Nearly half of all white and minority women work.

T F 20. Girls are auditorily oriented, and boys are visually oriented.

T F 21. Black and Puerto Rican women are more likely than other women to be over-qualified for the work they do.

Exercise I-4

RACE AND SEX DIFFERENCES — FACT AND MYTH

Answer Key

1. **False.** Boys and girls are equally socially oriented. Boys usually associate in larger groups than girls.
2. **True.** Girls perform better at higher level verbal tasks.
3. **True.** The unemployment rate in 1971 was 6.7 percent for white adult males as compared to 38.2 percent for minority females.
4. **False.** 65 percent of the Puerto Rican families and 54 percent of the black families headed by women were living in poverty in 1971.
5. **False.** Girls and boys are equally susceptible to influence by peers and others.
6. **False.** Boys and girls show a similarity in self-confidence although they differ in the areas they feel better about. Girls feel more socially competent, while boys see themselves as strong and dominant. Only at the college level do women show a greater dependency on how others view them.
7. **True.** Beginning at about age 12-13 boys' mathematical skills increase faster than girls.
8. **True.** Females and minority students tend to drop out of mathematics as soon as they can.
9. **False.** Girls and boys are equally proficient at repetitious tasks and at more cognitively oriented tasks.
10. **True.** The disadvantage suffered by black women is slightly less than that of Puerto Rican, Mexican-American and Native American females. Asian women are the exception to the generalization.
11. **True.** Minority women are at the bottom of the income ladder.
12. **False.** Neither sex has a superior analytical ability.
13. **True.** Boys are more biologically prone to learn aggressive behavior.
14. **True.** Throughout school girls obtain higher teacher-assigned grades than boys.
15. **False.** Achievement motivation modes for boys and girls are different, but no sex differences in motivation have been found. Boys currently respond more to competitive situations than girls.
16. **True.** Especially in late adolescence, boys score higher than girls on standardized achievement tests in math, science and social studies.
17. **True.** Girls excel in reading and writing throughout school.
18. **True.** All female populations, non-white and white, earn less income on the average than majority males.
19. **True.** 44 percent of white women and 49 percent of minority women were employed in 1973.
20. **False.** Both sexes show similar ability to discriminate sounds and to respond to visual stimuli.
21. **True.** Black and Puerto Rican women with high school degrees are more often found in jobs where the degree is not required, although 1976 data suggest that this is true for all females and all non-white males in relation to white males.

SOURCES

Items #1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13-17, 20.

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Item #3

Twenty Facts on Women Workers. 1978. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor — Women's Bureau.

Items #4, 11, 19

Verheyden-Hilliard, M.E. 1976. *A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality in Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association. p. 12.

Item #8

Fauth, G.C. and Jacobs, J. 1980. Equity in mathematics education: The educational leader's role, *Educational Leadership* 37(6): 485.

Items #10, 18, 21.

Social Indicators of Equality for Minorities and Women. 1978. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. p. 6; pp. 53-54; p. 18.

Individual Reading I-5

This article by Donna Hart reviews current issues related to the cultural barriers and the occupational and educational status of minority women of different racial and ethnic groups. You will find this information helpful as you participate in the activities of this module and as you work to promote sex and race equity in your classroom.

ENLARGING THE AMERICAN DREAM*

By Donna Hart

Traditionally, American society has been willing to accept culturally different peoples if they in turn were willing to reject their cultural distinctiveness. Assimilation, until the late 1960's, was accepted by almost everyone, educators and large segments of most ethnic communities prominently included. During the past decade, however, an emerging sense of heritage that is being more and more proudly expressed by racial minority and national origin groups is changing all this.

The past definition of education's function — to remodel citizens for conformity to a single homogeneous model of acceptable behavior and beliefs — is being challenged. Many Americans now contend that democratic education should have cultural pluralism as a goal. They argue that the rich cultural mix in America — the different values, customs, traditions, and religions — can expand everyone's horizons as it affects all aspects of life, including sex-role attitudes and issues of concern in education.

This article presents an overview of the impact of the woman's movement on cultural norms and heritage and the cultural differences and educational experiences of five minority groups — Puerto Rican, Chicano, Black, Asian, and Native American. Though these five groups by no means represent all minority women, they do indicate the needs of a major segment of minority women as they differ from the needs of Anglo women.

Black Women

Black women, victims of double discrimination because of their race and sex, are often asked to make a choice with regard to their priorities: "Are you black first, or female first?" The plain fact is that they are both and have no way to separate the two. Many black women believe that the effort to force a separation of the two, especially as that relates to establishment of society priorities, has worked to the detriment of both the racial movement and the women's movement. The black woman is the victim of both racism and sexism, and therefore represents a potentially powerful unifying force around issues for both movements.

In a piece included in *Voices of the New Feminism*, writer Pauli Murray says, "Because black women have an equal stake in women's liberation and black liberation, they are key figures at the juncture of these two movements. White women feminists are their natural allies in both cases. Their own liberation is linked with the issues that are stirring women today: adequate income maintenance and the elimination of poverty, repeal or reform of abortion laws, a national system of child-care centers, extension of labor standards to workers now excluded, cash maternity benefits as part of a system of social insurance, and the removal of all sex barriers to educational and employment opportunities at all levels.

*Reprinted from *American Education*, U.S. Office of Education, May 1977, Vol. 13, No. 4.

Black women have a special stake in the revolt against the treatment of women primarily as sex objects, for their own history has left them with the scars of the most brutal and degrading aspects of sexual exploitation."

The notion that the black female enjoys a favored economic position in relation to the male is a myth. The belief that black women have always been "liberated," and therefore do not need to be involved in a movement to liberate women is also a myth. The media-produced stereotype of the women's movement as a middle-class white woman's struggle to escape from housework and child rearing, to get out of her home and into the job market ignores the black woman who may have been a family breadwinner but who lacked the opportunity to make free choices concerning her life.

Historically, these "breadwinner" jobs have been the result of the economic stucture need for cheap labor. Because of an economic necessity of earning a living to help support the family and a need for the black community to draw heavily upon the resources of all its members in order to survive, black women have taken jobs that few others would accept; thereby they unwittingly aided in creating the myth of the female's dominance in the black family. This illustrates how racism has affected the relationships between black males and females. As black men develop access to the economic power structure, black women for the first time have wife or worker options that many white women have had for a long time.

Diane Slaughter of the University of Chicago, in examining the different adaptive strategies black women have arrived at, suggests, "The strongest conception of womanhood that exists among all pre-adult females is that of the woman who has to take a strong role in the family. The pre-adult females accepted the situation as part of life and tradition in the black community. It is against this backdrop that the symbol of the resourceful woman becomes an influential model in their lives."

As a result of her research, Afro-American sociologist Joyce Ladner sees three primary agents of socialization for the pre-adolescent black female: 1) the immediate and extended family; 2) the peer group; and 3) negative community influences such as exposure to rape, poverty, violence, and the like. The strong personality that results from exposure to the harshness of life enhances the girl's chances for survival and her adequate functioning within society. To "survive," the black woman must "make it" as a mother and a worker.

Consequently, over the years, education has been one of the black movement's priorities. The black woman's aspirations toward education are associated with an emphasis on career possibilities that are seen as making possible or easing the maintenance of the black family.

Despite the faith of black women in the education system as a means for social and economic advancement, equal education has not assured them equal access to opportunity. Black women with degrees equivalent to those held by men and white women have been unable to obtain equivalent jobs. The gap between the salaries of black men and women has widened. Both black and white women with some college education earn less than a black male who has only eight years of education.

Although the black woman has made great strides in recent years in closing the educational gap, she still suffers from inadequate education and training. In 1974, approximately 75 percent of black women had completed high school compared with 85 percent of white women. Although there was a 56 percent increase in college enrollment of blacks between 1970 and 1974, only 16 percent of black women were enrolled in college at the end of that period. A college degree is attained by only 7.6 percent of black women.

Since 1970, little evidence exists of any advance in the relative earnings of black females. A look at the jobs in the top five percent of the earnings distribution shows that black females held none of them in 1960 and essentially none in 1973. Black women earn less than white women (a median income of

$2,810), are employed in greater numbers (about 60 percent between the ages of 20 and 54), and hold a greater percentage of low-paying, low-status jobs (54 percent are employed as operatives or service workers). In 1975, 35 percent of black families were headed by women who earned a median income of only $4,465. That there is still a large number of black women in the labor force reflects to a considerable degree their continuing obligation to supply a substantial proportion of family income. It also suggests that educational attainments, no matter how small, raise participation rates more for blacks than for white women.

The quandary of black women is how best to distribute their energies among the multiple barriers of poverty, race, and sex, and what strategies to pursue to minimize conflicting interests and objectives.

More and more, young black women are starting to think about their futures as black women in the United States. They are not accepting societal interpretations of their roles. In the process of thinking things through they are being realistic about the roles they will embrace. Black women will still have to work, but they want to work at jobs that are more challenging and that more fully use their strengths and talents. They want quality education and training to develop their abilities and interests. They want education that respects cultural differences and that educates for liberation and survival.

Puerto Rican Women

In immigrating to the states, Puerto Ricans differ in one main respect from most other minorities who preceded them: They come as American citizens. Nevertheless, numerous problems — differences in customs, racial inequalities, and a limited knowledge of English among them — have restricted their social, economic, and educational success.

Many Puerto Ricans report that the family, which is very important in traditional Puerto Rican culture, experiences a tremendous shock when it is transplanted from Puerto Rico to the mainland. No role in the Puerto Rican American family has been more challenged by immigration than that of the father. In traditional Puerto Rican culture, the man is the undisputed head of the household. Meanwhile, the "good woman" obeys her husband and stays at home, working long hours while caring for the children. But whether head of household or "good woman," the individual subordinates his or her wants and needs to those of the family.

On the U.S. mainland, where women have more prominence and stature, these traditional Puerto Rican roles are undercut. Puerto Rican women are not shielded from mainland differences. Economic need often projects them into the labor force where they are confronted by the greater expectation of women's roles. Then, too, the school and community teach Puerto Rican children that they should have more freedom, be more aggressive and independent, and should speak English rather than Spanish. These influences change the traditional roles within the family, causing strains, role conflicts, and identity confusion.

The Puerto Rican woman often drops out of school at an early age to enter the labor force (at the lowest level) in the hope that her wages will help her family out of a life of poverty. When she is able to find a job, she faces serious disadvantages, not least among them her lack of knowledge of English and the lack of bilingual programs in her community. Adequate training is another lack that keeps a decent salary out of reach, a situation that further compounds her housing, health and other problems.

Of no assistance to her plight are discriminating hiring practices that have Puerto Rican women working for a lower wage than Puerto Rican men despite equal pay legislation. Many of the available opportunities have been so-called "women's jobs," which are economically and politically powerless and amount to nothing more than low-paid unskilled drudgery.

Supporting this glum picture of Puerto Rican women in America are the 1975 U.S. Census figures that show 1.7 million Puerto Ricans in the United States, 906,000 of them female, of whom only 154,000 have jobs. More than half of the Puerto Rican women participating in the labor force are operative or service workers, and 68 percent of those working earned incomes below $5,000. The most recent data indicate that 31 percent of Puerto Rican households are headed by women who earn a median income of $3,889.

Puerto Rican women in America complete an average of 9.5 years of school. Only 25 percent of them attain a high-school education and a mere three percent are college graduates. Their educational attainments, like their employment, are hampered by their imperfect grasp of English and their identity confusion, which is often exacerbated by mainland prejudice and their own sense of being strangers in a foreign country. Of significant concern to Puerto Rican women is how much the lack of access to "mainstream" education influences their social and economic situations.

Puerto Rican women in the United States are still struggling with racial as well as sexual discrimination in housing, education, and hiring. They find the women's movement defined by Anglo-American standards and often oblivious to the special needs and strengths of minority women. They feel that the movement has tended to obscure the racist issue, resulting in double discrimination for minority women.

Puerto Rican women will not separate themselves from their cultural heritage or be alienated from their men. They strongly support the qualities of womanhood, strong family ties, and respect for the family as an institution. They will accept a movement that confronts sexism, but not one that divides the sexes. If the movement appeals to the issue of basic human rights, to the values inherent in the freedom of both sexes from sexism, and to the proposition that when a woman has freedom of choice this also frees the man — if this, in fact, is the meaning of the women's movement, then many Puerto Rican women will support it.

Mexican-American Women

Mexican-Americans constitute the second largest minority in the United States today, and more than 90 percent of them are city dwellers. Vilma Martinez, a young Chicana (feminine form of Chicano) lawyer, has speculated that "in 15 or 20 years the Hispanic population will surpass the black population. Our citizens must be awakened to the ramifications of this fact: Hispanos are a nationally significant, and not a regional, group."

Historically, the Chicano family has been patriarchal and authoritarian. Economic, social, and political leadership in Chicano communities traditionally has been male-based. Education, sexual liberties, and material comforts have been for the men, with the women taking a subordinate, supportive role within the family. The Chicana was controlled by her parents until she married and then had to be faithful to her husband and children.

Chicanos often place a greater emphasis on the family as a unit than on its individual members. Parents stress the use of Spanish as their children's primary language, insisting that to give up Spanish would be to say that one's ancestors accounted for nothing and that one's culture had made no impression on the history of the Southwest. The feeling prevails that the family nucleus would disintegrate if the children could not speak in Spanish to their grandparents.

Chicano leaders see three distinct choices open to Mexican-American women: The Chicana can adopt the traditional sex role, imitating the rural Mexican woman whose place is in the home; she can choose a dual role in which she is bilingual and begins to move away from traditional religious and family sex-role images; or she can cut her cultural ties and identify with the "liberated" middle-class white woman.

This diversity of role models for women within the Chicana community requires special consideration by education policy-makers. Chicanas themselves express the need for having specific role models which they can follow at all education levels — elementary, secondary, community college, and higher education. And they're talking about teachers and administrators, not just Chicanas in school cafeterias. Many of them are looking beyond community-college training as secretaries or as cosmetologists.

Educational and vocational training opportunities must, therefore, be made more accessible and relevant to Chicanas' lives. The deficiencies in our educational system as it relates to Chicanas are underscored in that Chicanas complete an average of only nine years of school. One-fourth of them have completed less than five years of school, 23 percent have completed high school, and only 2.2 percent of those 25 years of age and older are college graduates.

These low figures do not translate the zeal with which Chicanas seek education despite the many obstacles. One formidable barrier is hydra-headed discrimination because of race, color, national origin, language, and sex-role socialization. Then there are damaging or inadequate counseling, ill-prepared and unmotivated teachers, culturally biased achievement tests, inequality of school finances, tracking into noncollege preparatory courses, economic deprivation and a lack of role models.

Parents of Chicanas recognize the value of education as a tool for survival in a complex society. They encourage their daughter to pursue education, and there is a sense of family pride about a daughter's attendance at college. But parents also want Chicanas to remember their traditional family values and roles. Thus under pressure to succeed as both student and Chicana within a strange, impersonal, and often inflexible college environment, the young woman becomes vulnerable — and little wonder — to the despair and frustration that account for the high dropout rate of Mexican-American women.

Nor can the economic realities that often preclude interest in and access to educational attainment be overlooked. The annual income of Chicanas in 1974 demonstrates a cycle of poverty, with 76 percent of them earning less than $5,000. In terms of earning power as compared to all other Spanish-origin women, the Chicana is at the bottom, earning a median annual income of $2,682. It must also be noted that Chicanas are increasingly in the labor force because of economic need and responsibility as heads of households; 14 percent of Chicano families are supported by Chicanas, and one-half of these are below the poverty level.

Chicanas have tended to be suspicious of the woman's movement, which came about just as the minority movement was gaining momentum. Hostility toward white women who have moved into the forefront with their "sexual politics" results from the Chicanas feeling that class interests have been obscured by the issue of sex which is easier to substantiate and to deal with than are the complexities of race.

Chicanas, along with many other minority women, question whether or not white women in power positions will perform any differently than their white male predecessors. Will white women work for humanity's benefit? Will they use their power to give entry skills and opportunities to minorities? Chicanas have seen little evidence of white women addressing these broader needs or exhibiting an understanding of the minority-wide issue of redistribution of income levels.

Bea Vasquez Robinson of the National Chicana Coalition succinctly states the minority women's position vis-a-vis the women's movement: "To expect a Chicana who has felt the degradation of racism to embrace a movement that is once more dominated by whites is childish." And in another instance, "We will join forces to the extent that you white women are willing to fight, not for token jobs or frills, but rather go to the roots of our common oppression and struggle for economic equality."

The Chicanas' prime concerns are economic survival and the continuance of their culture. Their issues are broader than sexism; theirs are racism and cultural pluralism as well.

American Indian Women

In any discussion of American Indian women, it is necessary to keep in mind the diversity among the 789 tribal entities existing today. Writing for the HUD Challenge, social scientist Regina Holyan says, "Some tribes allow and encourage prominent authoritative behavior on the part of their women, while other tribes such as the Navajo and Cherokee prefer that their women not act conspicuously in decision-making roles. These conflicting expectations by different tribes place Indian women in sensitive situations when they must interact with members of other tribes."

Nonetheless, like the Chicanas, American Indian women may choose among three separate subcultural roles; the traditionalist, stressing adherence to the tribal religion and cultural patterns; the moderate that retains elements of the traditional Indian heritage and customs while adjusting to the dominant white societal patterns; and the progressive, which replaces the traditional culture with the modern white beliefs and values. Educators need to be aware of these different role choices and to avoid influencing Indian students to choose a role based on the expectations of whites.

Among the cultural values basic to many tribes is an emphasis on living for today — in harmony with nature, with no time consciousness, with a concern for giving, not accumulating, a respect for age, and a desire for sharing and cooperating. These values are often in direct opposition to those stressed by the dominant culture's educational program. The white way of life is future oriented, time conscious, and competitive. It places great importance on youth, the conquest of nature, and long-term saving.

For over a century the federal government, largely through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, has assumed the responsibility for educating Native Americans to the standards of the general population. Because the Indians must live in the white man's world, their sense of survival tells them that education is the way to success, even though they may not agree with many of the practices of the schools their children attend.

Despite the availability of free schooling, only 6.2 percent of Indian females and 5.8 percent of Indian males in the Southwest have completed eight years of school. Data from the 1970 Census, however, indicated that women in the total American Indian population complete a median of 10.5 years of school with just over a third (34.6 percent) graduating from high school. Although female Indians attain more years of formal education than do males, they have been shown to be dramatically less acculturated than Indian males.

Census data also show that only 50 percent of American Indian women report English as their mother tongue. This means that English is a second language for half of the Indian women. Educational policymakers — especially at the elementary level — must be aware of the high incidence of English language deficiencies among Indian females and plan programs accordingly.

There is a real need for American Indians to participate in formulating education policy for reinforcement of the distinct tribal belief systems and value systems. Indians look upon self-determination as a necessity, especially in view of tribal diversity and the different learning styles that exist among the tribes. Yet Indian women often perceive federal programs and the women's movement as sidestepping their particular wants and strengths and threatening family unit because these programs encourage them to seek their own self-satisfying goals. This is to say that though Indians will not dispute that education is necessary for survival, they dislike the specific methods because they disrupt their culture and often have the effect of channeling Indian women into domestic jobs and other low-paying positions.

Preservation of the family with the nurturing of children within the family structure is the prime goal of Indian-made policy. Should the Indians feel a federal program to be in conflict with this policy, they can choose not to take part in it. That decision, however, is not without serious consequence: Not to

participate can result in an effective block to progressive self-help by closing off economic and educational opportunities. Lack of education also prevents the American Indian from working from within the education and political systems where weighty issues must be dealt with: How, for instance, is access to educational funding on both federal and state levels gained by Indian tribes individually? Who controls and uses the funding once it is gained? How can self-determination be enacted within existing guidelines for receiving educational funding?

Thus the Indian student has two life styles to learn. On the one hand, the ways of the white, predominant culture must be learned as a survival skill, though Indian women caution against these ways being permitted to "vitiate" or influence tribal style. On the other hand, the Indian life content, which now is learned only through the home, must be learned simultaneously as standards and values. The Indian woman must be effective in both areas and aware of the appropriate responses expected of her in different situations.

Employment and job opportunities for Indian women are, naturally, affected by the level and quality of their educational background. More Indian women than any other group (86 percent) earn less than $5,000 per year. Thirty-five percent of Indian women participated in the labor force in 1970, and as a group they earned a median annual income of $1,697. Seventy percent were in the powerless and vulnerable position of clerks, operatives, and domestic service workers. Although there were two wage earners in almost half the Indian households in 1969, their median family income was a mere $3,300. American Indians, the smallest and poorest of all America's ethnic groups, "stand in a class by themselves when it comes to suffering economic deprivation," according to economist Lester Thurow.

For the most part, Indian women believe that working toward the improvement of the status of Indians as a people is where their efforts should be directed and not solely toward their status as Indian women. As a Winnebago woman put it, "We Indian women do not feel oppressed in the Indian world. We are more concerned with the problems of racial discrimination." An Isleta Pueblo woman observes that Indian women have a concept of equal rights that is different from that of the women's movement; they believe that acquiring equal rights does not necessarily means that Indian women want to attain equal leverage in tribal matters. And Minerva White, a Seneca, recently said, "We have had women's liberation for five thousand years; we have been liberated for five thousand years, and so that is not an issue for us."

Because Indians do not make the same kinds of sex-role distinctions whites make, and because Indian women, especially those of matrilineal tribes, influence tribal economic decisions and are in decision-making positions, these women are not generally sympathetic to the women's movement. They accept the reality of social changes occurring but ask little beyond a voice and some control over the directions of the changes that are profoundly affecting the lives within their tribe.

Asian-American Women

Asian-Americans, like American Indians, are a highly diversified ethnic group. The Asian-American population includes Koreans, Indians, Pakistani, Vietnamese, Indonesians, Thais, Malaysians, and a wide representation of Pacific peoples such as Samoans, Guamanians, and native Hawaiians; Americans of Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino origins are also included, and because more detailed research and description are available for them, they will, for the purpose of this discussion, represent all Asian-Americans.

Asians today constitute less than one percent of the population in the United States, although the importance of their presence in this country, past and present, far outweighs their numbers. From a background of "unskilled" labor and objects of discrimination, Asian-Americans have reached comparatively

high levels of educational and occupational achievement. Chinese and Japanese, the most prominent of the Asian-descended groups in America, are often pointed out as the "successful" minority groups.

The first Census data of 1910 showed that 78 percent of the Japanese in this country were male, as were 89 percent of the Filipinos and 90 percent of the Chinese. Because recent immigration has almost consistently introduced more females than males into each of the Asian-American communities, the sex ratios have changed considerably. The Japanese and Korean populations are now predominently female, partly a reflection of the number of war brides brought back by returning servicemen. The Chinese and Filipinos continue to be predominantly male.

A comparison of the labor-force status of women shows that a larger percentage of Asian-American women (50 percent) work outside the home than do black (48 percent) or white women (41 percent). A little over 55 percent of Korean women work; whereas Japanese and Chinese women occupy an intermediate position with 49 percent taking jobs, according to 1970 Census. All in all the proportion of Asian-American females gainfully employed is higher than the national average, and this does not take into account the unpaid women in family-operated businesses, since many of these women do not classify themselves as "employed."

Although many Asian-American women are highly educated, having attended or completed college, they are nevertheless concentrated in the positions of bookkeepers, secretaries, typists, file clerks, and the like. "They are qualified for better jobs," says Betty Lee Sung of the Department of Asian Studies at City College of the City University of New York, "but are the victims of sexism more than racism."

Levels of unemployment of Japanese-American and Chinese-American women are generally low, even slightly lower than those for whites. In 1970, for example, the unemployment rate was only 3.7 percent for Chinese women. The problem is not in getting a job, but rather in the kind of job and the salary it pays. Many recent Chinese immigrants, fresh off the plane, can walk into one of the small garment factories scattered throughout any Chinatown or its peripheral area and start working the next day. They work by the piece and their hours are fairly flexible. Piece work at low rates is always available.

The presence of very young children has not limited the level of occupational achievement for young working Asian women. Chinese mothers show higher levels of occupational achievement than childless, never-married Chinese women. This is true also for Filipino women, although to a lesser extent than for Chinese. This situation may represent a cultural carry-over from the traditional Asian pattern in which middle-class Asian mothers are inclined to be employed. By Asian custom, older children help to take care of younger ones, thereby relieving mothers of these family duties during the day. Hence, the Asian "day-care" program is conducted within the home and family.

Chinese-American women are marrying later and limiting their families probably because they are spending more years in school. In 1970, the median years of schooling for each Asian-American group was slightly above the white attainment of 12.1 years. Today, differences in years of completed schooling among Asians and whites of both sexes have virtually disappeared.

Census data for 1970 indicate that 23 percent of Filipino and 58 percent of Chinese-American women between 18 and 24 years of age are in college. About three-fourths of all Japanese-Americans finish high school. Figures like these indicate that many families have shed the centuries-old belief that females are spoiled for wifehood and motherhood if they acquire some education. It is generally the foreign-born female who is the most deprived and, hence, the most handicapped. Her occupational sphere is, therefore, extremely circumscribed and limited to the most simple and menial jobs.

Many Americans are unaware that more Chinese-Americans are born abroad than are born in the United States. The foreign-born ratio will probably become greater as immigration exceeds native births.

In essence, the Chinese-American population is largely a first-generation or immigrant-generation population. The tremendous adjustment that first-generation Chinese-Americans must make puts them at a disadvantage in every respect. They must re-educate themselves completely and quickly.

Most Americans assume that Asian-Americans have no social problems, an assumption which restricts the access of Asian-Americans to funds available to minority groups. As a result they have been forced to form self-help organizations in their own communities, an action leading to the misconception that Asians "take care of their own."

One segment of the Asian population most in need of help are those who cannot speak, read or write English. Illiteracy is generally a problem with those over 45, especially the women. The younger generations are highly educated and bilingual, regardless of sex. However, in the 1970 Census, only four percent of the Chinese living in New York listed English as their mother tongue. In California, 12 percent and in Hawaii, 44 percent did so. That the Chinese have clung to their language more tenaciously than most other national groups is commendable and could provide a national resource of bilingual people.

Another problem Asian-Americans often encounter is the American cultural values that are in conflict with many traditional Asian values. For example, many Asian cultures have emphasized strict loyalty to the family, which trains children to avoid controversial, potentially embarrassing situations. Strict self-control and discipline were mandatory. As a result, Asians, especially women, often have appeared to be reserved, self-conscious, and reticent, finding continuity, permanence, and personal security in the close relations of the family. In contrast, dominant American culture now comprises a majority of single, nuclear families with few multigenerational living arrangements.

Another example would be American competitiveness based on "each for himself," a notion alien to most Asians. However, in the process of acculturation and upward mobility, many Asians have adopted the more expressive and assertive style of the dominant culture. Betty Lee Sung asserts that the tendency is becoming increasingly prevalent for Asian-Americans to believe that, in order to adjust to living in the United States, one must embrace the American way in toto and cast off the Asian heritage completely. She also believes that great psychological damage will result for these Asian-Americans. Instead, she holds, Asian-American women and men should strive for a culturally pluralistic society in which they can preserve their heritages while contributing to American social, civic, and educational life.

Like many foreign women, Asian-American women have been neatly categorized by stereotype milled in white imaginations. Asian women are often described as being docile, submissive, and sexless. Or they may be exotic, sexy, and diabolical. They are often presented as objects or commodities rather than as persons with ideas, aspirations, talents and feelings.

A situation familiar to many Asian women comes as a consequence of recent immigration. Since the end of World War II, more than 500,000 women of foreign nationality have entered the United States as spouses of Americans. Over one-third of these women were from Asian countries. Professor Bok-Lim Kim of the University of Illinois has found that many of these women experience a host of adjustment problems. Reports of severe physical abuse and deprivation are not uncommon. In one study made at Washington State, Professor Kim noted that divorce or separation among Asian wives of military men resulted in over 20 percent of those in the study becoming female heads of households. (This figure is in contrast to the six percent of Chinese-American and eight percent of Filipino-American female heads of households.) These Asian wives are often unable to seek help because of their isolation, lack of proficiency in English, unfamiliarity with the life style, and fear of outside contacts.

Young Asian-American women, especially those who are third generation, are feeling a void and are expressing a need and desire to rediscover their ethnicity. These women are more liberated and more assertive. They are challenging the monocultural ideal of the majority society to acknowledge, analyze,

and incorporate Asian-American women and men at all social, political, educational, and economical levels. Fundamental changes in the American educational process toward a goal of cultural pluralism is a realistic response to their peculiar needs and strengths.

Minority women by and large are concerned with how Anglo society — its educational institutions in particular — has attempted to divorce them from their cultural heritage and alienate them from their men. They want to share the belief that the only route to fulfillment of the American Dream is by preserverance and education. Yet the present educational system often militates against such goals for minorities and especially females.

Many minority women are high-school dropouts. Consequently they look to secondary-school programs to be made more relevant and available to them. In like vein, higher education, a recent alternative for many minority women, needs to be demystified. College role models in their immediate families are still rarely found because most minority women in college today are the first in their families to be there. Setting this kind of precedent puts presssure on the young women, brought on by expectations from both their families and themselves. Those who make it through four years of college soon become painfully aware that the job benefits which should follow are often limited. Many college-educated minority women are unable to get white-collar jobs at a professional level.

The fact is that minority women frequently explain their problems in economic terms. The kinds of jobs open to them is a smarting issue to these women. Of 36 million women in the labor force, 4.7 million are minorities, constituting more than 40 percent of all minority workers. Discriminatory hiring practices still prevail and are just further complicated when minority women have educational attainments, the more educated often finding themselves underemployed and underpaid. It is often the case that both white and minority women with some college education earn less than minority men with less than a high-school education.

Generally, however, the more education a woman has the more likely she is to be in the skilled or professional labor force. New job opportunities in expanding occupations and additional schooling are almost certain to place more minority women in the labor force.

Statistics indicate that most minority women workers are high-school graduates. March, 1974, figures showed 61 percent had graduated from high school, including ten percent who had completed four or more years of college. The comparable figures for white women were 75 and 14 percent, respectively. Because minority women complete a median 12.3 years of schooling, the educational system must plan and implement instruction that will meet their special needs during these 12 years.

One purpose of the educational system is to equip all learners with satisfying and rewarding competencies for entering the world of work, in the field of one's choice. The curriculum and instruction used in preparing the professionals who will work with minority girls and women must reflect the heritage, needs, and concerns of the various minorities. Cultural pluralism, a relatively new idea in education, addresses the cultural differences of minority women and informs majority men and women about this diversity. This pluralistic concept is the hope that ethnic women have in getting others to understand, promote, and respect differences in cultural patterns and learning styles that are so widespread in America — and, not incidentally, in advancing themselves in the dominant-culture.

Possible Strategies to Meet the Educational Needs and Strengths of Minority Women

Federal education agencies and foundations

- Conduct and encourage research into the problems and concerns shared by minority women in the area of education.

- Organize on national or regional levels a clearinghouse for information exchange on minority women and relevant resource personnel, materials, and programs.

State departments of education

- Interpret Title IX with a sensitivity to multiculturism, recognizing the double jeopardy of sex and race.
- Include multicultural female representatives in planning and developing programs for minority women and girls.
- Encourage and provide equal employment opportunities for hiring minority women in administrative and decision making positions.
- Retrain educators, counselors, and administrators to sensitize them to the special needs and concerns of minority female students.
- Require teacher-training and certification programs to include intense self-evaluation sensitivity to multiculturism.

Local education agencies

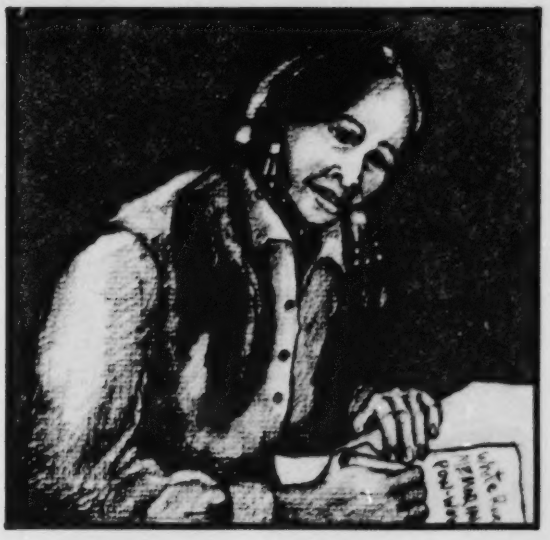
- Include minority women and community members on the board of directors.
- Encourage minority women to prepare for career advancement and provide adequate training opportunities.

Education institutions (preschool through college)

- Recruit minority women into administrative, faculty, and student ranks.
- Provide special stipends and allowances for minority female students from low-income families.
- Adopt day-care, tutorial, and counseling services to enable minority women to partake of educational opportunities.
- Initiate special placement efforts for minority female graduates.
- Expand and enrich adult-education opportunities so that parents and children are exposed to acculturation at a more closely related pace.
- Encourage and preserve bilingualism.
- Emphasize in school and college curriculums the literature, music, art, dance, games, and sports of minority cultures.
- Make effective use of community resources and develop incentives for community participation.
- Evaluate regularly and systematically school programs that involve minorities.

Unit II

FORMING EXPECTATIONS



A Content Outline

Introducing the Unit

Opening Exercises

Exercise II-1 *Forming First Impressions* will help participants examine characteristics they associate with "good" students in general and with male, female and minority female students.

Exercise II-2 *Describing Minority Girls* is designed to explore the characteristics generally ascribed to minority girls.

Lecture Resource II

The Formation of Teacher Expectations is an essay on the key factors that shape teacher expectations. It is to be used as the basis for developing a lecture.

Follow-up Exercises

Exercise II-3a *Johnson, Ms. Robbins and Barbara Moss — A Case of Teacher Expectations* and

Exercise II-3b *Johnson, Ms. Robbins and Laura Adams — A Case of Teacher Expectations* are parallel cases where only the students' races differ. This exercise encourages teachers to explore the dynamics of expectancy formation.

Individual Exercise

Exercise II-4 *Facts and Myths about Minorities and Education* is a self-test intended to clarify some misconceptions about minorities and education.

Instructions For Trainers

Introducing Unit II

FORMING EXPECTATIONS

1. Welcome participants and introduce trainers.
2. Review Unit I.
3. Review the training schedule.
4. State the objectives of Unit II. Explain to the group that the exercises included in Unit II will enable them to:
   - Identify possible sources of information (cues) that may influence the formation of expectations;
   - Distinguish between realistic and biased expectations;
   - Identify the expectancy cues that are more important in their own student-teacher interactions;
   - Identify areas where more accurate or more extensive information on students might lead to more realistic expectations for those students.
5. Begin the opening exercises.

Notes:

OPENING EXERCISES

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise II-1

FORMING FIRST IMPRESSIONS

1. Explain to the group that in this activity they will examine characteristics they associate with "good" students in general, and with "good" male, female and minority female students.
2. Divide into four small groups and give each group one of the instruction cards. Each group will be working on a different category of students.
3. Explain that this activity is to be done by the group and that each group should appoint one member to serve as recorder.
4. Allow 10-15 minutes for the groups to record their responses.
5. Make a large four column chart with the following headings: good students in general; good male students; good female students; and good minority female students.
6. Reconvene the large group.
7. Ask the recorder of each small group to write the traits the group identified in the corresponding column on the large chart.
8. Encourage the group to observe the traits they considered characteristics of "good" students in general, male, female and minority female students.
9. Ask participants to share their reactions and discuss these issues:
   - Were the characteristics of good students in general the same as the characteristics of good female students, good male students, good minority female students?
   - What differences were discovered in expectations for students in general, for males and females, and for minority females?

Notes:

- What student characteristics were most important expectation cues for males? for females? for minority females?
- Were good male student traits more often social or academic?
- Were good female student traits more often social or academic?
- Were good minority female student traits more often social or academic?
- Which similar characteristics were listed for all categories of students?
- Do you think the list of characteristics would be different for first grade students? junior high students? high school students? How would the list differ?

Exercise II-1

FORMING FIRST IMPRESSIONS

Card 1

Instructions

Imagine you are a fourth grade teacher and today is the first day of school. You are going to form initial impressions of your students. You already have an idea of the special traits that **good students** usually display. List five to ten of these traits.

Exercise II-1

FORMING FIRST IMPRESSIONS

Card 2

Instructions

Imagine you are a fourth grade teacher and today is the first day of school. You are going to form initial impressions of your students. You already have an idea of special traits that **good female students** usually display. List five to ten of these traits.

Exercise II-1

FORMING FIRST IMPRESSIONS

Card 3

Instructions

Imagine you are a fourth grade teacher and today is the first day of school. You are going to form initial impressions of your students. You already have an idea of the special traits that **good male students** usually display. List five to ten of these traits.

Exercise II-1

FORMING FIRST IMPRESSIONS

Card 4

Instructions

Imagine you are a fourth grade teacher and today is the first day of school. You are going to form initial impressions of your students. You already have an idea of special traits that **good minority female students** usually display. List five to ten of these traits.

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise II-2

DESCRIBING MINORITY FEMALES

1. Explain to the group that the second opening exercise, Describing Minority Girls, will aid them in exploring the characteristics generally ascribed to minority girls.
2. Explain to the group that they are to work individually on the profile of a minority girl student using the handout as a guide.
3. Distribute the handout and allow ten minutes for the completion of the activity.
4. While participants complete their profile, prepare a chart listing the items from the handout.
5. Ask the group to share their responses and have one person record them on the chart.
6. Encourage the participants to review the chart and comment on the following:
   - Which minority groups were considered?
   - Was one particular socioeconomic status mentioned more often than others?
   - What common aspects of family background were mentioned?
   - Which language or languages were most often mentioned?
   - What was generally expected of the minority girls in terms of academic performance and interests?
   - Which problems were the most commonly mentioned?
   - Which careers were most often mentioned?
7. Conclude with a discussion of the following issues:
   - What background information or source did participants have or need to have in order to

Notes:

form a realistic impression of the minority girl?

- Have participants had experiences with first impressions that later did not prove correct?
- Have participants had cases when first impressions were accurate?
- What weaknesses do the participants feel they might have as professionals or individuals in teaching this student?
  - Lack of knowledge of minority women's history?
  - Lack of knowledge of attitudes, culture, interaction styles of minority females?
  - Lack of knowledge of the student's aspirations?
  - Lack of knowledge of barriers in the student's past educational experiences which might have themselves produced certain academic problems?
  - Other?

Exercise II-2

DESCRIBING MINORITY FEMALES

Instructions

Imagine that you are an eighth grade teacher and today is the first day of school. As you look over your group, you find that this year you have minority females in your English class. Briefly write a profile of one of them. Include the following data:

1. What is her background?

   Race/ethnic group _____

   Socioeconomic status _____

   Family background, life style, values _____

   _____

   Language _____

2. What might you expect of the student?

   Her general interest in education _____

   School subjects in which she might excel _____

   _____

   School subjects in which she might not excel _____

   _____

   Things she will do best _____

   _____

   Things in which she might not be interested _____

   _____

3. What problems do you think you might encounter in working with her?

   Academic performance _____

   Discipline _____

   Communication _____

   Other _____

4. What can she expect for the future?

   Careers she will probably choose _____

   Average years of education she is likely to attain _____

Instructions For Trainers

Lecture Resource II

THE FORMATION OF TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

Before you begin . . .

1. Read through the lecture resource paper, *The Formation of Teacher Expectations*, and become familiar with the content.
2. Identify and review resources cited to expand your own knowledge of how expectations are formed.
3. Decide ahead of time the most important points you want to present.
4. Prepare a chart or a transparency which outlines the seven sources of expectancy formation discussed in the Lecture Resource.
5. Duplicate the Lecture Resource paper to be distributed after the lecture.

Conducting the lecture . . .

6. Explain to the group that you will provide them with some background information about the bases upon which teachers form expectations.
7. Identify and list the seven sources which research has found to serve as a basis for the formation of teacher expectations.
8. Cite some of the research and its findings.
9. Allow time for participant clarification questions but do not spend a lot of time on individual situations. Participants will have an opportunity to get into this in subsequent activities.

After the lecture . . .

10. Facilitate a group discussion which addresses the following questions:
    - Seven factors contributing to teacher expectancy are discussed in the presentation.

Notes:

Which factors are most obvious and/or influential in your school environment?

- How is your school organized to convey information on students as they move from grade to grade? Can biased expectations enter into this system? Can this system be changed in any way? How? By whom? What can *you* do to improve the system?
- What informal communications systems operate to communicate expectations for students among teachers? What changes in this informal communications system do you think are desirable? How can these changes be made? By whom?

Lecture Resource II

THE FORMATION OF TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

"On what bases do teachers form their expectations for students?" "Are these expectations biased or accurate?" A considerable volume of research has identified a number of the bases for teacher expectations and has indicated that expectations are often inaccurate and biased. Teachers form expectations on the basis of:

- Race/Ethnicity;
- Socioeconomic Status;
- Language;
- Sex or Gender;
- Physical Attractiveness;
- Placement;
- Academic Achievement.

Race and Ethnicity appear to influence teacher judgments at all levels within the education system. Among college faculty, Williams and Muehl report that "in an integrated class, instructors frequently will rate students on the basis of skin color rather than class performance." [1] Weinberg reports on Parsons' research study which found that teachers ignore Mexican American children in favor of their white peers. Teachers praise and encourage white students, respond more positively, accept their contributions more often, ask more questions and pay more attention to them than to Mexican American students. Weinberg concludes that the low academic achievement of Chicano students may be attributed in large part to the teachers' behavior toward them. [2] Woodworth and Salzer found that elementary school teachers indicated preference for the same material when presented by a white child, showing that they held negative achievement expectations for the black child. [3] A study of white female teachers found that teachers were influenced by test scores, attentiveness and activity of the child, and that Southern and non-Southern teachers rated blacks and whites differently. [4]

Socioeconomic Status (SES) is another factor contributing to teacher attitudes about students. Cooper, Baron, and Lowe hold that "expectations about a student's academic performance are influenced by that student's race and social class information." [5] According to Friend and Wood, both social class and race affect the way adults perceive that children perceive themselves. [6] Yee contends that teacher attitudes are negative for lower class students [7] and Mazer reports that teacher ratings of students are influenced by status designations but not by racial differences. "Disadvantaged" or "deprived" denotes a student perceived as "linguistically inept, undependable, unkempt, inattentive, unmotivated, and uncooperative." [8] In summarizing a review of the literature, Gollub and Sloan state, "The racial and socioeconomic bases for teacher expectations is one important reason schools in America are not making an impact on students independent of their background and general social context." [9]

Language, too, is a conveyor of expectations. ". . . teaching candidates expect learners who speak standard English to perform better academically than learners who use non-standard English." [10] In rural

Hawaii, teachers' evaluations and expectations for non-standard speakers are consistently lower than for standard speakers. [11] Bikson found that even when speech performance of black and Chicano students was equal to or better than that of white students, teachers heard them as inferior. [12] Williams, Whitehead, and Miller concluded that "given the relationship between language attitudes and teacher expectancy, there is the suggestion that the study of language variations in children, particularly minority group children, and attitudinal correlates be introduced into the curricula of teacher training to prevent language attitudes from serving as false prophecies, or worse yet, becoming themselves self-fulfilled prophecies . . ." [13]

Sex or Gender is a variable that is an important determinant of the expectations teachers have for students. "Of all the variables that can be used to divide people into groups, sex is probably the most fundamental and pervasive." [14] ". . . when all else is held constant, people still see differences due to the label of 'boy' or 'girl', and . . . these differences tend to be most obvious in ambiguous situations and to follow the lines of socially accepted sex role stereotypes." [15] Kehle, Bramble and Mason conclude that expectations teachers hold for pupils are very complex and are based on a combination of student characteristics. Sex is an important biasing factor and the interaction of sex, race, attractiveness, and intelligence is a powerful set of characteristics influencing expectations. [16] Finn finds teacher expectations to be more differential in urban schools where perceived ability levels are the most important factors and where whites are differentiated by sex, but black students are not. [17]

Physical Attractiveness is a characteristic that appears to be important especially during initial teacher-student interactions. [18] In a study of fifth grade teachers, a child's attractiveness was significantly associated with the teacher's expectations concerning the child's intelligence, his/her parents' interest in education, likelihood of future success, and popularity with peers. [19] The impact of attractiveness as a biasing effect, according to DeMeis and Turner is strongest for white children. [20]

Placement of students in special education programs or in lower groups in the classroom has long been a disturbing contributor to the formation of low expectations for students. Rist, in an often-cited study, attacks classroom grouping and calls it a caste system. [21] In reviewing the literature Fair finds, "The placement of minority group children in special education programs influences the expectations of teachers who may already have negative attitudes about the intellectual potential of minority group children." [22]

Achievement is the final factor to be discussed in this portion of the literature review. Williams indicates that teachers in Canada appear largely to base their expectations on the achievement of students, and not on ascribed characteristics. [23] Murray, Herling, and Staebler feel that teachers are influenced by a student's initial performance and his/her performance pattern is a factor in the development of teacher expectancy. [24] Expectancies are based on criteria relevant to academic performance, according to O'Connell, Dusek, and Wheeler and teachers do not bias the education of children. [25] Fleming and Anttonen state that "teachers assess children, reject discrepant information, and operate on the basis of previously developed attitudes toward knowledge about children and tests." [26]

Teacher expectancies are formed in a complex social, educational and cultural environment. Especially in combination, these many factors would appear to result in greatly reduced expectations for minority girls.

Footnotes

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FOLLOW-UP EXERCISES

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise II-3a and 3b

Two Cases of Teacher Expectations

Johnson, Ms. Robbins & Barbara Moss
and
Johnson, Ms. Robbins & Laura Adams

1. Explain to the participants that this exercise contains two parallel cases where only the student's ethnicity differs and that this exercise will encourage them to explore the dynamics of how expectations are formed and the factors which contribute to differentiated teacher behavior.
2. Explain that they will be examining a case study of teacher expectations and that they will be responding to a series of questions.
3. Divide into teams of 3-5 people each.
4. Distribute the case studies so that half of the teams examine case *a* and the other half case *b*.
5. Ask participants to read the case, record their individual responses then discuss responses with others in their small group.
6. Convene the groups and ask them to give a brief summary of their reactions.
7. Ask the groups to compare their reactions and comment on what they discovered about the formation of expectations.

Notes:

Exercise II-3a

JOHNSON, MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA MOSS

A Case of Teacher Expectations

Instructions

Please read the case, respond to the concluding questions, then discuss reactions with others in your group.

Johnson

Johnson Middle School is located at the edge of Hamdon, an industrial city not far from Trenton and Philadelphia. At one time Johnson served a community that was largely white, largely middle class. In recent years social and economic changes have altered the Johnson Community. Equally balanced between blue-collar and white-collar families, the area population is about thirty percent non-white. Some ten percent of the students in the school qualify for the subsidized lunch program and that percentage grows slightly each year. Johnson has a good reputation for its academic achievements and for its sports program that attracts most of the students in the school. Science and math programs are well financed and parents support the school with volunteer services and fairly good attendance at school meetings. A faculty of thirty teachers serves the nine hundred students in the school.

Alice Robbins

Alice Robbins has taught elementary school for eighteen years; the last eight years have been spent at Johnson where she is currently assigned to one of the grade six classrooms. With the exception of the years she took off while her children were very small, Ms. Robbins has been employed since receiving her M.A. in elementary education at age 24. Now in her late forties, Ms. Robbins has earned a reputation as an excellent teacher. She is sensitive to student needs and she is a firm disciplinarian. In her instructional program, she emphasizes language arts and uses drama and literature more extensively than other teachers. Students who have spent a year with Ms. Robbins are known to have mastered verbal skills.

During the past few years Alice Robbins has been less certain that she is reaching the students in her class, especially the minority students and the students from low-income families. She has felt that some of these students require help that she may not be skilled in providing. Ms. Robbins has noticed more tension in the classroom between white and non-white students and a growing antagonism between students and teachers throughout the school. Ms. Robbins wonders if the faculty is relating to the student body and responding appropriately. Some teachers blame declining standardized test scores on the students. "They just aren't like the students we used to have at Johnson." They are pushing for new disciplinary measures and the wider use of student expulsion. She isn't sure the problems rest entirely with the students. She feels that many teachers, perhaps, have failed to change with the times.

Barbara Moss

Barbara Moss is an outgoing and talkative student. She always has something to say in response to challenges and jokes that circulate in the lunchroom and on the playground. Barbara comes from Duncan Elementary, an all-black urban school. She is new to Johnson and it is the first time that she has attended

an integrated school. She is tall and athletic and commands the attention of other students. While not an attractive girl, she is always neat and even fashionably dressed. So far, Barbara has spent most of her time with students from her own street. The custom, she has observed, is to socialize with other students on the basis of geography and this fact has meant that she, like other sixth graders, is beginning to be close to a small group of friends from her neighborhood.

After three weeks at Johnson, Barbara has not really settled down to work. She has demonstrated average ability in verbal studies where her oral skills surpass her written skills. In science, she appears to lack interest in the subject and confidence in herself. She has begun to be somewhat disruptive during activities with which she is having difficulty. However, after an initial exposure to the science lab, she has appeared far more curious than before.

Barbara appears to be competitive. She likes games and other activities where winning and losing are elements of the contest. She has always been aggressive and competition adds an attractive dimension to learning or to playing for her.

Barbara is one of seven children ranging in age from four to eighteen. At home she has some child care responsibilities and she is expected to walk home after school with her younger sisters, Marsha and Kim, whenever possible. At present, basketball practice occupies two afternoons per week and Marsha and Kim come to the gym to watch her play. She looks confident on the gym floor; an image that is different from the one she presents in the classroom.

Questions to Consider — Group Discussion

Alice Robbins has been observing her new student, Barbara Moss, for two weeks. Quite naturally, she has begun to form impressions of and expectations for her.

1. What do you believe Ms. Robbins is likely to expect of Barbara at this time in terms of:
   - Grades (language arts and reading);
   - Grades (science and mathematics);
   - Behavior (cooperative or uncooperative);
   - Relationships with others (leader, group member, solitary individual);
   - Future in-school success estimate;
   - Nature and degree of family interest in the child?
2. On what bases were the expectations formed?
3. Are these expectations likely to be realistic or biased?
4. What might Ms. Robbins do to be more helpful to Barbara at this time?
5. What other information would Ms. Robbins want?
6. Compare responses with other groups. In what ways were the conclusions affected by the characteristics of the student presented in the case?

Exercise II-3b

JOHNSON, MS. ROBBINS AND LAURA ADAMS

A Case of Teacher Expectations

Instructions

Read the case, respond to the questions at the end of it then discuss reactions with others in your group.

Johnson

Johnson Middle School is located at the edge of Hamdon, an industrial city not far from Trenton and Philadelphia. At one time Johnson served a community that was largely white, largely middle class. In recent years social and economic changes have altered the Johnson Community. Equally balanced between blue-collar and white-collar families, the area population is about thirty percent non-white. Some ten percent of the students in the school qualify for the subsidized lunch program and that percentage grows slightly each year. Johnson has a good reputation for its academic achievements and for its sports program that attracts most of the students in the school. Science and math programs are well financed and parents support the school with volunteer services and fairly good attendance at school meetings. A faculty of thirty teachers serves the nine hundred students in the school.

Alice Robbins

Alice Robbins has taught elementary school for eighteen years; the last eight years have been spent at Johnson where she is currently assigned to one of the grade six classrooms. With the exception of the years that she took off while her children were very small, Ms. Robbins has been employed since receiving her M.A. in elementary education at age 24. Now in her late forties, Ms. Robbins has earned a reputation as an excellent teacher. She is sensitive to student needs and she is a firm disciplinarian. In her instructional program, she emphasizes language arts and uses drama and literature more extensively than other teachers. Students who have spent a year with Ms. Robbins are known to have mastered verbal skills.

During the past few years Alice Robbins has been less certain that she is reaching the students in her class, especially the minority students and the students from low-income families. She has felt that some of these students require help that she may not be skilled in providing. Alice Robbins has noticed more tension in the classroom between white and non-white students and a growing antagonism between students and teachers throughout the school. Ms. Robbins wonders if the faculty is relating to the student body and responding to its needs appropriately. Some teachers blame declining standardized test scores on the students. "They just aren't like the students we used to have at Johnson." They are pushing for new disciplinary measures and the wider use of student expulsion. She isn't sure the problems rest entirely with the students. She feels that many teachers, perhaps, have failed to change with the times.

Laura Adams

Laura Adams is an outgoing and talkative student. She always has something to say in response to challenges and jokes that circulate in the lunchroom and on the playground. She is new to Johnson and it is the first time that she has attended an integrated school. She is tall and athletic and commands the

attention of other students. While not an attractive girl, she is always neat and even fashionably dressed. So far, Laura has spent most of her time with students from her own street. The custom, she has observed, is to socialize with other students on the basis of geography and this fact has meant that she, like other sixth graders, is beginning to be close to a small group of friends from her neighborhood.

After three weeks at Johnson, Laura has not really settled down to work. She has demonstrated average ability in verbal studies where her oral skills surpass her written skills. In science, she appears to lack interest in the subject and confidence in herself. She has begun to be somewhat disruptive during activities with which she is having difficulty. However, after an initial exposure to the science lab, she has appeared far more curious than before.

Laura appears to be competitive. She likes games and other activities where winning and losing are elements of the contest. She has always been aggressive and competition adds an attractive dimension to learning or to playing for her.

Laura is one of seven children ranging in age from four to eighteen. At home she has some child care responsibilities and she is expected to walk home after school with her younger sisters, Marsha and Kim, whenever possible. At present, basketball practice occupies two afternoons per week and Marsha and Kim come to the gym to watch her play. She looks confident on the gym floor; an image that is different from the one she presents in the classroom.

Questions to Consider — Group Discussions

Alice Robbins has been observing her new student, Laura Adams, for two weeks. Quite naturally, she has begun to form impressions of and expectations for her.

1. What do you believe Ms. Robbins is likely to expect of Laura at this time in terms of:
   - Grades (language arts and reading);
   - Grades (science and mathematics);
   - Behavior (cooperative or uncooperative);
   - Relationships with others (leader, group member, solitary individual);
   - Future in-school success estimate;
   - Nature and degree of family interest in the child?
2. On what bases were the expectations formed?
3. Are these expectations likely to be realistic or biased?
4. What might Ms. Robbins do to be more helpful to Barbara at this time?
5. What other information would Ms. Robbins want?
6. Compare responses with other groups. In what ways were the conclusions affected by the characteristics of the student presented in the case?

copy for participants

INDIVIDUAL EXERCISE

Exercise II-4

FACTS AND MYTHS ABOUT MINORITIES AND EDUCATION

A Self Test

Instructions

Many times our expectations for students are based on what our society expects them to achieve. Examine the following statements and determine if you think they are true or false. (Answer key follows.)

T F 1. Minority students generally have aspirations to attend school beyond high school.

T F 2. Hispanic families place little emphasis on education.

T F 3. Black children have the ability needed to perform well on standardized tests and to achieve in school.

T F 4. Family background is a more potent factor in achievement than is school.

T F 5. Black students worry about school achievement more than white students.

T F 6. Asian students tend to select coursework that requires a minimum of verbal self-expression.

T F 7. Economically disadvantaged females suffer more from lack of attention in school than do disadvantaged males.

T F 8. The national decline on achievement test scores may be attributed to the fact that more minority students are taking college entrance examinations.

T F 9. Urban Native American women raised their educational level during the 1970's.

T F 10. Asian Americans do not seem to experience as much educational disadvantage as other minority groups.

T F 11. As of 1976, 34 percent of majority males were college educated whereas only 11 percent of minority females were college educated.

T F 12. Educational services for limited English proficient Hispanic students increased significantly in the 70's.

T F 13. Black women believe the roles of wife and mother are more compatible with occupational roles than do white women.

T F 14. Minority women have made a lot of progress in all areas of education since 1972.

T F 15. Between 1970-1976 the percentage increase of students graduating from high school was significantly higher for blacks than for whites.

Exercise II-4

FACTS AND MYTHS ABOUT MINORITIES AND EDUCATION

Answer Key

1. **True.** The proportion of 18 to 24 year old high school graduates out of school who are interested in continuing their education is higher for blacks and Hispanics than for whites. This proportion increases as the family income decreases.
2. **False.** Mexican American children express a stronger desire to achieve in school than Anglo children. Mexican American children experience as much pressure from their parents to achieve in school as their Anglo peers.
3. **True.** During the last twenty years performance of blacks on IQ tests has been linked with cultural and social factors rather than genetic factors. Findings in the studies of the last fifteen years show that, "Black and other minority children are fully capable of conceptual and other school learning as thousands of teachers have long known from their experiences with minority students."
4. **False.** School factors have been found to be more significant in the achievement of black, Mexican American, Native American and Puerto Rican students than for whites and Asians. Social class affects achievement to the extent that it determines the school climate and the educational opportunities offered.
5. **True.** Hawkes and Furst found that black children worry more than white children.
6. **True.** A study of majors chosen by Asian American students shows that during the period from 1961-1968, 74.3 percent of American-born Chinese males and 68.2 percent of American-born Japanese males went into either engineering or the physical sciences. Verbal skills of Asian students tend not to be developed adequately in school. Avoidance of fields where linguistic skills and interpersonal contact are required was still a trend during the 1970's.
7. **True.** Administrators tend to see disadvantaged students as males, while girls are viewed as middle class. There is a tendency to ignore girls from low socioeconomic backgrounds.
8. **False.** The racial composition of the tested groups remained constant during the years when the decline was reported.
9. **True.** Urban Native American women raised their educational level during the 1970's but they are still 11 percent short of reaching the level of high school graduates in the United States.
10. **True.** Asian Americans do not seem to experience as much educational disadvantage as other minority groups but their financial rewards are still far below those of comparably educated majority males.
11. **True.** As of 1976, 34 percent of majority males were college educated whereas only 11 percent of minority females were college educated.
12. **False.** Educational services for limited English proficient Hispanic students did not increase significantly in the 70's. In states with at least 5,000 limited English proficient Hispanic students only one-third to two-thirds of those students were enrolled in English as a second language or bilingual

education programs in 1976.

13. **True.** Black women believe the roles of wife and mother are more compatible with occupational roles than do white women.

14. **False.** Minority women have not made a lot of progress in all areas of education since 1972. In general, women are still underrepresented in areas such as nontraditional vocational education, physical education, physical sciences and graduate degrees awarded, particularly in sciences. The latter is particularly true for minority women.

15. **True.** Between 1970 and 1976 the percentage increase of students graduating from high school was significantly higher for blacks than for whites.

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Unit III

COMMUNICATING EXPECTATIONS

A Content Outline

Introducing the Unit

Lecture Resource III

The Communication of Expectations identifies the different behaviors which convey expectancy messages to students, and the effects of those behaviors on students' performance.

Follow-up Exercises

Exercise III-1 *Ms. Robbins and Barbara Interact* presents a series of scenes which illustrate expectancy messages.

Exercise III-2 *A Contract to Try Something New* is intended to assist teachers in the identification of specific skills and actions they need to try in their interactions with minority girls.

Individual Exercises

Exercise III-3 *A Field Experience* is designed to aid in observing student-teacher interactions in order to identify specific skills related to the communication of expectations.

Exercise III-4 *How I Interact with a Student* helps a teacher examine his/her relationship with one student.

Exercise III-5 *Promoting Race and Sex Equity* helps the teacher examine current classroom practices for fairness to all students and especially, to minority girls.

Instructions For Trainers

Introducing Unit III

COMMUNICATING EXPECTATIONS

1. Welcome participants and introduce trainers.
2. Review Units I and II.
3. Review the training schedule.
4. State the objectives of Unit III. Explain to the group that the exercises included in Unit III will enable them to:
   - Recognize behaviors that signal a teacher's feelings of low-expectancy or high-expectancy;
   - Identify behaviors that the teacher herself/himself may use in communicating expectations to students;
   - Select and try several skills or actions designed to help teachers communicate clear, realistic expectations for students.
5. Present the lecture.

Notes:

Instructions for Trainers

Lecture Resource III

THE COMMUNICATION OF EXPECTATIONS

Before you begin . . .

1. Read through the Lecture Resource paper, *The Communication of Expectations*, and become familiar with the content.
2. Identify and review sources cited to expand your own knowledge of how expectations are communicated.
3. Decide ahead of time the most important points you want to present.
4. Prepare a chart or a transparency that outlines the ten teacher differential behaviors which are mentioned in the Lecture Resource.
5. Duplicate the Lecture Resource paper to be distributed after the lecture.

Conducting the lecture . . .

6. Explain to the participants that you will provide them with background information on the teacher differential behaviors and their effects on student performance commonly identified by researchers.
7. Cite the most important research in relation to the differential behaviors. Spend some time explaining the concept of "learned helplessness."

After the lecture . . .

8. Facilitate a group discussion which addresses the following questions:
   - What teaching behaviors communicate expectations? Give illustrations of each.
   - Under what conditions is a teacher more likely to be vulnerable to making errors regarding expectancy? Are some students

Notes:

more likely than others to receive biased feedback? Are some teachers more likely than others to convey biased feedback?

- How can teachers maintain an awareness of their communication practices and the potential for conveying negative or false expectations to some students?
- What are the implications of the concept of "learned helplessness" in the communication of expectations to females?

Lecture Resource III

THE COMMUNICATION OF EXPECTATIONS

We have already determined that teachers form expectations for students. Many of these expectations are unfairly biased, having been based on inaccurate and/or incomplete assessments and information. Two major questions related to biased teacher expectations need to be addressed:

- Do biased expectations lead teachers to behave differently toward different students (differential teacher behavior)?
- What is the impact of differential teacher behavior on students?

Research related to these questions has expanded understanding of teacher expectations and differential behavior. However, a number of contradictory findings have been reported.

In 1975 Bellamy suggested that it is most important to examine time and quality of instruction, rewards and punishments, teachers' selective memories about the behavior of students, pupil behaviors that are important to the teacher, and the ways teachers respond to information that is contradictory to expectations. [1] By 1980, Cooper, Hinkel, and Good were able to conclude, "Teacher behaviors vary with performance expectations." [2]

What are teacher differential behaviors which have been identified? For low achievers, teachers:

- Wait less time;
- Do not stay with them in failure situations;
- Reward inappropriate behavior;
- Criticize more frequently;
- Praise less frequently;
- Do not give feedback to public responses;
- Pay less attention to them;
- Call on them less often;
- Seat low achievers farther from themselves;
- Demand less. [3]

Barnes focused primarily on teachers in multi-ethnic classrooms in desegregated high schools. He found that white teachers:

- Have more direct contacts with white students than with black students;
- Ask white students more product questions and ask black students more choice questions;
- Give more process feedback to white students;
- Give white students more time to develop correct and more thorough responses. [4]

Barnes believes that white teachers in multi-ethnic classrooms need to be more concerned about their teaching behavior when teaching black and other ethnic minority students. "Black students may have been deliberately discriminated against in classroom interactions or they are victims of teacher ignorance and low expectations and, as a result, may be short-changed in a particular dimension (intellectual/cognitive) of the educational process." [5]

Observations continue to contribute to an understanding of differential teacher behavior. Teachers spend more time communicating with allegedly brighter pupils and they are more positive, accepting, and supportive of them. [6] Teachers engage in more positive interactions with children they perceive as bright than with children they perceive as dull. Teachers expect to call on lower achieving students less often. [7] However, other research has determined that at the same time ". . . low expectation females receive the most criticism per incorrect answer." [8]

Students rated at the top or the bottom of their classes received differential treatment with reference to wait-time and rewards:

- Top rated students are allowed more time to respond;
- Low rated students receive more criticism;
- Top rated students receive fewer rewards, but the more frequent rewards to low rated students are often ambiguous. [9]

It appears that teacher expectations do translate into differential treatment of or behavior toward students. As Lawlor and Lawlor state:

> *When a teacher must decide what moves to make in order to fulfill her instructional role, she is anxious to help those with low ability and to recognize the accomplishments of those with high ability. The end result of these two tendencies is to direct a greater number of moves toward the high ability children and to place the low ability child in a role subordinate to both his teacher and his more able peers.* [10]

Student-Teacher Interactions

Teachers form expectations of students and these expectations are at times biased. Expectations can be demonstrated through overt teacher behavior. Does differential teacher behavior have an impact on students and, ultimately, on their learning and in-school performance? The student, after all, is the key element in the expectancy cycle.

Citing five studies conducted in the 1960's, Safilos-Rothschild reports that the data indicate a causal relationship between teacher behavior and student behavior. [11] Jeter observes that the behavior of teachers toward high-expectation students affects the students' responses to the teacher, their initiation of activity, their class-appropriate behavior, and their feelings about self, school and the teacher. [12] Better students respond to teacher behavior by participating more. [13] High ranked students interact more frequently, both publicly and privately, with the teacher, [14] and high-expectation students show greater gains in self-concept. [15] Although high school student-teachers reinforce high and low expectation students the same, they are more attentive to high expectation students. As a result, these students talk more. [16] Clifford suggests that less qualitative and more quantitative feedback would probably lead to improved student performance at the elementary school level. [17]

Cooper contends that low-expectation students receive more teacher criticism which leads to reduced motivation and less success. [18] Not in full agreement with Cooper, Dweck et al. found that although girls receive more praise than boys, they demonstrate less confidence in their intellectual ability. The authors studied the sex differences in 'learned helplessness', a condition which occurs when a person attributes his/her failure to lack of ability. This self criticism leads to a loss of confidence and resultant poor performance. Dweck et al. found that girls are more likely than boys to blame themselves for failure and attribute success to the teacher's favorable attitude. The authors concluded that 'learned helplessness' in girls may be attributed to the fact that the positive evaluation that teachers often give to girls is not related to the intellectual aspects of their performance. These students become dependent on teacher approval and in the end lose confidence in themselves. [19]

In five studies about work and laboratory settings, high expectancies of competence by others were found to be positively related to performance; "apparently, we use whatever we can, authority figure or not, intelligent or not, to define ourselves vis-a-vis a given situation, and then we behave in a way consistent with such a definition." [20]

Finally, Firestone and Brody have tracked children from kindergarten through grade 1. They report that children who experience the highest number of negative interactions with the kindergarten teacher are the children who test most poorly at the end of grade 1, despite I.Q. "The interactions that occur between teacher and children do provide a significant increase in one's ability to predict academic performance." [21]

Students react to biased teacher behavior and that complex set of reactions appears to result in student achievement and performance which is below potential. Although it is extremely difficult to trace inputs, expectations, teacher behaviors, student responses, and final outcomes and to attach causal relationships to them, the evidence indicates that there is a reasonable need to increase teacher awareness of the likely effects their expectations have on students.

A Course of Action

Much of what people accomplish is the result of what they expect to achieve. Individuals have expectations of themselves and also are made aware of the expectations others have of them. The expectations of the persons who play major roles in an individual's life are critical to that individual's formation of self-expectations.

For children to achieve their full potential they need to expect success and be responsible for it. They need to receive expectations messages which, while realistic, are challenging. For school age children, good positive expectations ought to come from family, from friends, and from school. The school, and particularly the teacher, is the concern of this module.

This focus on teachers results from the understanding that teachers play important roles in the lives of children. Teachers need to be skillful diagnosticians and skillful communicators who are sensitive to and knowledgeable about the complexities of the teaching-learning process and the pricelessness of every young life. In fact, literature abounds with support for the fact that teachers, in most cases, base their expectations on performance indicators and accurately communicate these realistic expectations to their students.

A difficulty arises, however, when teachers must deal with students who are in some way different from themselves. Differences filter the expectation cues and complicate the situation. Too often, "different" is translated as "less valuable," and "less valuable" signals enter the system. Clear communications based on ability are contaminated by unconscious doubts, prejudices, threats and fears.

Teachers want to perfect their communication and teaching skills; they want to promote educational equity. Literature in this field supports teacher training as a means of providing teachers with relevant information and suggested tools for strengthening their skills in those areas.

> *Teachers of teachers need to sensitize preservice students to the fact that their expectations for a pupil may directly affect his/her performance. Inservice personnel need to carry this same message to classroom teachers. Awareness itself may not bring about a change in behavior. It is, however, a first step toward change.* [22]
>
> *Without a periodic thoughtful examination of expectancies, teachers may simultaneously stereotype their own behavior and possibly victimize the children they are charged to serve.* [23]
>
> *Teachers need to be keenly aware that their own beliefs regarding socioeconomic level, test information, or sex of the learner too frequently result in structuring a learning situation which produces behaviors commensurate with their beliefs.* [24]
>
> *Teacher expectancy effects are most evident when teachers are unaware of the possibility of such effects and thus are unprepared to deal with students of differing abilities grouped together. Unaware teachers direct both greater levels of encouragement and greater levels of criticism toward the student of presumed greater ability. Teachers who are given special intruction to heighten awareness of expectancy effects are better able to guard against qualitatively different treatment of students of differing abilities.* [25]

We hold the highest expectations for teachers who are learners, too.

Footnotes

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FOLLOW-UP EXERCISES

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise III-1

MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA MOSS INTERACT

1. Explain to the group that this activity is designed to enhance the teachers' ability to identify the subtle ways in which they convey low expectations to minority females.
2. Distribute the paper, *Low Expectation Messages*, which contains a list of statements regarding low expectation messages.
3. Explain that the group will be divided into teams which will enact scenes from a case study, and that following the enactment of each scene, participants will select from the list the statement which best describes the action/scene they have just observed.
4. Describe the setting of this case study by explaining that at this point Alice Robbins has become increasingly concerned that Barbara Moss' performance, socially and academically, is about to deteriorate. She has decided to concentrate her attention on Barbara during the week in an attempt to know her better and to affect an improvement in her progress. She is especially concerned that Barbara gain self-confidence and become more motivated to learn.
5. Divide the group into four small teams and give each team two of the scenes in the exercise. Explain that each group will role play two scenes.
6. Allow five minutes for the teams to get ready to role play the two scenes.
7. After each scene has been played, ask the group to select the statement from the list of Low Expectation Messages which best describes the action/scene which was played.
8. Ask the group to suggest what Ms. Robbins might have done differently in her interactions with Barbara.

Notes:

Exercise III-1

MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA INTERACT

Low Expectation Messages

Instructions

During this exercise, scenes depicting direct interactions between Ms. Robbins and Barbara will be enacted. After each scene has been played, determine which of the following statements best summarizes the action/scene you just witnessed.

Scene No.

_____ Teachers tend to create dependency in low-expectation students (especially girls) by doing things for them. Independence is encouraged when students both try and fail or try and succeed.

_____ Comments on appearance or other non-academic characteristics can have a positive effect. However, they are inappropriate when they replace praise for intellectual ability. This is often the case where low expectation students, especially females, are concerned.

_____ Low expectation students receive more criticism. Also, the teachers may put physical distance between themselves and low expectation students.

_____ Teachers' comments tend to relate to the intellectual aspects and content of boys' work, but to the presentation rather than the content of girls' work.

_____ Teachers, in an effort to be kind, may demand too little from low expectation students, communicating the message that they are not expected to do as well as the other students.

_____ Teachers tend to seek out and communicate more with high expectation students. Teachers are more likely to display a lack of direct communication with and attention to low expectation students.

_____ Questions are conveyors of expectations. Open-ended questions are more often directed toward higher expectation students. Choice questions (where thought development is not required and guessing is possible) are more often directed toward low expectation students.

_____ When low expectation students give an incorrect response, teachers are often inclined to move to another student, but when a higher expectation student responds incorrectly, teachers work with him/her to develop a correct answer.

Exercise III-1

MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA INTERACT

Instructions

Read the following scenes, decide with your team members how to role play them, and select actors to play the scenes for the rest of the group.

Scene 1

"Good morning, Barbara."
"Hi."
"A new sweater. You look very nice. Blue is very flattering to you."
"Oh, you always notice what I look like, Ms. Robbins. Thanks. You know there's not a color that I don't like. Just ask Lynn."

Scene 2

"Good morning, Lynn . . . Take your seats please. Let's get this week off to a good start. Class, all of you have read *The Fantastic Days*. Jeff, who was your favorite character and why?"
"Pinkerton was my favorite character because of his sense of humor."

"Good answer. Lynn, what happened to break the magic spell that was cast?"
"Well, the people started believing in Pinkerton's powers. The spell would only work if everyone believed."
"That's right."

Barbara has been very quiet during the whole period. At times she has raised her hand to answer and Ms. Robbins has not called on her. Toward the end of the class Ms. Robbins says:
"Barbara, did Pinkerton or Belle save the town from destruction?"
"Belle."
"O.K."

Exercise III-1

MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA INTERACT

Instructions

Read the following scenes, decide with your team members how to role play them, and select actors to play the scenes before the rest of the group.

Scene 3

"Barbara, Ms. Robbins has been looking for you. She wants you to know about try-outs for cheerleaders on Friday. She thinks you have an excellent chance if you are interested."
"What time? Do you know?"
"It is at 3:00. Ms. Robbins told me to go, too."
"Sounds like it could be fun. I'll see you there."

Scene 4

"This science experiment has helped us determine the effect of light on plant growth. What have you learned from this experiment? Yes, Barbara."
"I learned that plants don't grow without the sun."
"Good try, Barb. David, what did you learn?"
"I would say that a plant could grow in the dark."
"David, did we grow any plants in the dark?"
"No."
"Did we grow all of the plants in the sunlight?"
"No, we grew some under a light bulb. That small one — we grew it in the shade."
"Right. Now, can you re-state your conclusion, David?"

Exercise III-1

MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA INTERACT

Instructions

Read the following scenes, decide with your team members how to role play them, and select actors to play the scenes for the rest of the group.

Scene 5

"Barbara, you and Gerald have been at it all morning. Your chatter is disruptive to other students. Since you can't keep quiet, Barbara, I am going to have to ask you to move your seat to that corner for the remainder of the day. Gerald, you take the seat, here, beside my desk where I can keep an eye on you."

Scene 6

"We are going to construct a Navaho village. Each group will be responsible for different geographic features and dwellings. Begin by tearing strips of newspaper, then mix the paste for the papier mache."

Surveying the room, Ms. Robbins notices that Barbara is measuring the paste ingredients incorrectly.

"Barbara, let me measure that for you. There you go. Now it is ready to be stirred. Good work."

Exercise III-1

MS. ROBBINS AND BARBARA INTERACT

Instructions

Read the following scenes, decide with your team members how to role play them, and select actors to play the scenes for the rest of the group.

Scene 7

Ms. Robbins is giving back book reports today. As she hands them out, she makes individual comments:

"Allen, your report was very well written. I particularly liked your description of the characters; on the other hand, you have to pay more attention to the presentation of your work."
"Barbara, your report was very neatly presented. Congratulations!"

Scene 8

"It is nearly time to be dismissed. Be sure you know your homework assignment for tomorrow. Work to page 72 in your arithmetic notebook and on Wednesday I will work with groups to answer questions you might have."

Later . . . Barbara is leaving for the day.

"Barbara, I know that arithmetic is giving you some problems. Why don't you work to page 68, this evening, O.K.? That would be very good. See you tomorrow."

Instructions for Trainers

Exercise III-2

A CONTRACT TO TRY SOMETHING NEW

1. Explain to the group that this exercise is designed to assist them in identifying some specific techniques they may wish to use to strengthen their interactions with minority girls.
2. Divide into small groups and explain that the group will be looking at 14 categories of teacher behavior, and that each group is expected to come up with at least one course of action which may be used to improve performance in each category.
3. Give each participant a copy of Exercise III-2, *A Contract to Try Something New*, which contains the 14 teacher behavior categories.
4. Allow 15-20 minutes for small group work.
5. Convene the large group and allow time for the group to share responses.
6. Write the 14 categories on newsprint, transparency or a blackboard and list the courses of action which are suggested for each teacher behavior category.
7. At the end of the activity ask individuals to select the five items they wish to work with further.
8. Make sure that the following techniques are included:
   - **Using Wait-time.** After calling on students, mentally count to eight. Give them plenty of time to respond.
   - **Discussing Wrong Answers.** When students give incorrect or incomplete answers to questions, probe further with a series of questions to help the students locate and correct the error.

Notes:

- **Giving Appropriate Rewards.** Practice rewarding the behavior you mean to reward. Focus most on intellectual quality and demonstrated performance (Example: avoid commenting on neatness when content of work is the real issue.)
- **Using Praise.** Use praise to reinforce academic performance. Use it equally among students. Avoid overuse of praise for socially acceptable behavior (typically directed toward females).
- **Commenting on Public Response.** When interacting with students, respond to all students. Do not ignore responses simply because they are incorrect or insufficient. Acknowledge correct but poorly articulated answers. Help students express their responses better.
- **Giving Unambiguous Feedback.** When commenting on students' performance, give clear and specific feedback. Say what is right and wrong and avoid overuse of phrases like: O.K., good, nice try, not quite. These phrases suggest that the student is not expected to improve.
- **Giving More Attention.** Focus on students who have received less attention from you in the past and initiate additional good quality interactions both on a one-to-one basis and in groups.
- **Providing Role Models.** Use volunteers or other school personnel in class who can model qualities or characteristics which are different from yours. People who exemplify a different race, culture, language, sex, interests, or skills, may be able to introduce new beneficial ways of communicating with students.

- **Calling on Minority Girls in a Variety of Ways.** If you are accustomed to a single question — answer style, try varying the ways you call on students so that opportunities to participate are shared. You may: ask for volunteers; choose responders; have one student select responders; pair students and have them respond to each other; have groups develop answers and responses for the group, etc.
- **Changing Seating Arrangement.** If you are accustomed to a single seating pattern, try changing the seating and moving your own desk. Pay attention to spending time physically close to students who have been seated away from your usual location.
- **Providing Challenge.** Evaluate assignments made to students and make sure there is always an element of challenge. Tasks that are too limited suggest you lack confidence in the student.
- **Varying Types of Questions.** Assess the type of questions you ask and concentrate on asking open-ended, thought-provoking questions. Try some of these questions with students who usually get the "yes and no" type of questions.
- **Encouraging Independence.** When introducing an activity with students, give students every opportunity to do the task for themselves. Demonstrate the task or rephrase instructions rather than doing the task for a student.
- **Establishing Rules.** When interacting with students in or out of class avoid punishing some students for behaviors you usually accept from others.

Exercise III-2

A CONTRACT TO TRY SOMETHING NEW

Instructions

Throughout this unit you have been encouraged to recognize and diagnose interaction behaviors that communicate expectations to students. This exercise is one that asks you to make a contract with yourself to try some new techniques in your interactions with minority girls. Consider the following categories and write at least one course of action you feel would be useful in each category. Then select the five items you will start with in the following week.

1. Using Wait-Time

2. Discussing Wrong Answers

3. Giving Appropriate Rewards

4. Using Praise

5. Commenting on Public Response

6. Giving Unambiguous Feedback

7. Giving More Attention

8. Providing Role Models

9. Calling on Minority Girls in a Variety of Ways

10. Changing Seating Arrangement

11. Providing Challenge

12. Varying Types of Questions

13. Encouraging Independence

14. Establishing Rules

Instructions For Trainers

Exercise III-3

A FIELD EXPERIENCE

Classroom Observation Guide

1. Explain to the participants that this activity has been designed as a field exercise to help them identify specific skills related to the communication of expectations as it occurs in the classroom.
2. Distribute the Classroom Observation Guide and the instructions. Ask participants to complete the observation (preferably in a colleague's classroom) and to come prepared to share their observations and discuss the issues with others in the group.
3. Prepare a transparency or a large chart of the Classroom Observation Guide and have it ready for the next session.
4. The next time the group convenes ask participants to tally their observations and note which of the thirteen interactions were the most commonly observed between the teacher and the minority female, and between the teacher and the majority male.
5. Have one of the participants record the group's findings on the transparency or the chart.
6. Proceed to a group discussion, using the following questions to facilitate dialogue:
   - Which of the two students interacted with the teacher most? Least?
   - What kinds of interactions were most common between the teacher and the minority female? Between the teacher and the majority male?
   - Although you recorded positive interactions, did any student you observed engage in negative interactions with the teacher? Describe those interactions. How might they have been avoided or turned into positive interactions?

Notes:

- What can you say about the teacher's expectations (high or low) for these students on the basis of your observation?
- What observations did you share in common with others in your group?

Exercise III-3

A FIELD EXPERIENCE

Classroom Observation Guide

Instructions

1. Select two students in the class you are observing. Select a majority male and a minority female. Record their names in the spaces provided. Observe a 25-30 minute class period and check any of the thirteen interactions that occur between each student and the teacher. Note how many times they occur.
2. After completing the observation form consider the following questions and share your observations with others in the group.
   - Which of the two students interacted with the teacher most? Least?
   - What kinds of interactions were most common between the teacher and the minority females? Between the teacher and the majority male?
   - Although you recorded positive interactions, did any student you observed engage in negative interactions with the teacher? Describe those interactions. How might they have been avoided or turned into positive interactions?
   - What can you say about the teacher's expectations (high or low) for these students on the basis of your observation?

Exercise III-3

A FIELD EXPERIENCE

Classroom Observation Guide

How does the teacher in this classroom interact with these students?

The teacher:

1. Waits for the student to respond and to develop answers to questions.
2. Continues interacting with the student after the student has failed to respond or responded inadequately.
3. Rewards the student and the reward is unambiguous. It is clear what is being rewarded.
4. Directs criticism toward behavior or failure to obey.
5. Directs praise toward intellectual performance.
6. Offers feedback publicly to the student.
7. Offers process feedback and further develops the interaction with the student.
8. Calls on the student.
9. Initiates public or private conversations with the student.
10. Moves close to the student during teaching session. Approaches the student's space.
11. Challenges the student to expend more effort.
12. Provides instruction in a way that encourages student independence. Encourages student to "go it alone."
13. Asks the student product questions; questions that require thought; open-ended or abstract questions.
14. Other (list/explain).

Student Names

INDIVIDUAL EXERCISES

Exercise III-4

HOW I INTERACT WITH A STUDENT

A Self-Observation Questionnaire

Instructions

Choose a student in your class (choose a minority female, if possible) and record her name _____. The purpose of this exercise is to help you analyze the nature of your interactions with this student. Circle the number on the scale where you believe your typical, current interactions are best characterized. If you have a chance, check yourself in class or ask a colleague to observe you and provide an additional point of view.

1.	I wait for the student to respond to my question.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely give adequate time for the student to respond.
2.	I work with the student in a failure situation.	4	3	2	1	0	I move away from the student when she is failing to perform.
3.	I offer clear rewards.	4	3	2	1	0	I offer ambiguous rewards.
4.	I criticize intellectual quality.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely criticize intellectual quality.
5.	I praise intellectual performance.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely praise intellectual performance.
6.	I give feedback publicly.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely give feedback publicly.
7.	I offer process feedback; develop the student's response.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely offer process feedback.
8.	I call on the student regularly.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely call on the student.
9.	I initiate public and private conversations	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely initiate conversation.
10.	I use physical closeness to express liking; move to conversational distance when talking to the student.	4	3	2	1	0	I place physical distance between myself and the student.
11.	I encourage the student to try hard.	4	3	2	1	0	I rarely encourage the student to expend more effort.
12.	I encourage independence.	4	3	2	1	0	I encourage dependence, by doing things for the student.
13.	I ask product, open-ended abstract questions.	4	3	2	1	0	I ask only choice questions; yes or no questions.

Exercise III-5

PROMOTING RACE AND SEX EQUITY

Teacher's Checklist

Instructions

This checklist is designed to help teachers diagnose general areas of strengths and weaknesses in promoting race and sex equity. Answer *yes*, *somewhat*, or *no* to each item, then identify one or two techniques/skills you would like to improve.

_____ 1. I have worked toward creating accurate expectations of minority girls in.

- _____ • Achievement motivation
- _____ • Performance in math and science
- _____ • Classroom behavior
- _____ • Achievement in general

_____ 2. I have looked at biases in textbooks and instructional materials and established a balance of materials which portray minority girls fairly.

_____ 3. I have modified my reward and punishment system so that it is not different for boys and girls.

_____ 4. I have promoted the development of self-confidence among minority girls through encouragement and work standards which are the same as those for boys and girls of like abilities.

_____ 5. I have interacted equitably with minority girls in the classroom.

_____ 6. I have demonstrated sex equity through modeling non-sexist behavior.

_____ 7. When minority girls have limited English proficiency, I have considered the fact that the language barrier does not mean they are incapable of achieving in school.

_____ 8. I have worked individually with minority girls to find their strengths and weaknesses.

_____ 9. I have provided role models with which minority girls can identify whenever possible.

_____ 10. I have avoided sex typing and race bias when:

- _____ • Commenting on students work
- _____ • Assigning tasks
- _____ • Grouping students
- _____ • Addressing students

_____ 11. I have made efforts to learn more about minority women of various ethnic groups to better understand pupil behavior and interaction between minority female students and myself.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The module **Shaping Teacher Expectations for Minority Girls** focused on raising awareness of teacher attitudes and behaviors which communicate low expectations to minority girls and on providing strategies for achieving educational equity for minority females.

This section offers suggested resources and information which may be used by teachers to help translate awareness into action in the classroom. The materials deal with aspects of the educational process which are centered outside the classroom, and which are also powerful conveyors of expectations for minority girls. The resources provide an in-depth analysis of the culture, attitudes and needs of minority women of different racial and ethnic groups.

The annotated bibliography contains four categories of materials:

Part One. The identification of Race and Sex Bias in Instructional Materials includes articles which discuss race and sex bias in instructional materials and the media, guidelines for analyzing instructional materials for race and sex bias, and annotated bibliographies of recommended unbiased and nonstereotyped books for children.

Part Two. Counseling, Career Education and Guidance of Minority Girls contains documents and articles which provide guidelines for evaluating materials for sex, race and career bias, and strategies for improving the counseling and guidance of minority females of various ethnic groups and for eliminating sex and race bias in counseling.

Part Three. Background Information about Minority Women of Various Ethnic Groups presents selected works which discuss the cultural backgrounds, struggles and needs of women from various ethnic groups.

Part Four. Other Resources includes information handbooks and materials related to the achievement of sex and race equity in education.

Part One

The Identification of Race and Sex Bias in Instructional Materials

Annotated Bibliography of Multi-Ethnic Curriculum Materials. Index. 1977. Columbia, Mo: Midwest Center for Equal Educational Opportunity. ERIC ED 160475

This is an index to the original volume which was published in 1974.

The index is divided into three major categories: race, sex and general. Subtopics under race include the following groups: Afro Americans, Chinese Americans, Puerto Rican Americans, Vietnamese Americans and White Ethnic groups. Materials listed include media, periodicals, books and bibliographies. Some entries are cross-referenced for sex and race.

Supplements and related documents ED 114378-381; ED 2129703; ED 150076; ED 160475.

Bracken, J. and Wigntoff, S. 1979. *Books for Today's Children: An Annotated Bibliography of Non-Stereotyped Picture Books.* Old Westbury, New York: Feminist Press. ERIC ED 170771.

This document contains critical annotations of 193 picture books. It includes stories about various cultures, single-parent homes, women in nontraditional work-roles and stories that deal with diverse experiences such as adoption, disability, and death. Indexes by title, author and subject are provided.

Butler, M. 1978. *Sex Stereotyping in Instructional Materials and Television: Awareness Kit.* San Francisco, California: Women's Educational Equity Communications Network. ERIC ED 168548.

This kit describes sexism in instructional materials and T.V., provides guidelines for analyzing instructional materials and programs, and offers activities to encourage students to become aware of sex stereotyping in media.

Characters in Textbooks. A Review of the Literature. 1980. Washington, D.C.: United States Commission on Civil Rights. Clearinghouse Publication 62.

This paper summarizes findings of studies on the portrayal of minorities, females and older people in textbooks used in public schools in the United States during the 1970's and concludes that stereotyping was still prevalent in widely-used textbooks during this period of time. The paper also summarizes results of studies on the effect of stereotyping in textbooks and presents evidence of the negative impact on the development of self-esteem and on academic achievement.

Checklist for Selecting and Evaluating U.S. History Textbooks. 1973. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association. ERIC ED 097241.

This checklist was designed to help educators, editors, parents, and community groups in the evaluation and selection of history textbooks which present in a positive manner the contributions of women and members of minority groups and give a fair and objective picture of the interrelationships of the different groups.

Cohen, D. 1975. Multi-Ethnic Media; Selected Bibliographies in Print. Chicago, Ill.: American Library Association, Office for Library Service to the Disadvantaged. ERIC ED 118114.

The first part covers subjects such as minorities in children's books, racism, minority literature and cultures, minority self-concept, sexism, minority authors, library services, intercultural understanding, and textbooks. The second part is an annotated list of bibliographies. Most of the articles are concerned with books and audio-visual materials for children and young adults and are primarily aimed at the educator and librarian. The focus is on Black Americans, Hispanics, Asians, Native Americans and Jews, with occasional mention of other minorities.

Dunfee, M., ed. 1974. *Eliminating Ethnic Bias in Instructional Materials: Comment and Bibliography.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

This booklet was designed to help educators become aware of the need to analyze instructional materials for ethnic bias and of the importance of cultural pluralism. The comments at the beginning of each chapter and the bibliographic references provide information and insights into the new trends and changes in instructional materials development.

EPIE Career Education Set. Volume I: *How to Select and Evaluate Instructional Materials. Selection and Evaluation Tools.* 1975. New York, N.Y.: Educational Products Information Exchange Inst. ERIC ED 126360.

This document provides schools with information needed for the evaluation and selection of instructional materials. Chapter 1 presents a tool for analyzing a particular school's position on career education. Chapters 2 and 3 discuss race and sex bias found in career education materials and provide checklists for identifying bias in curriculum materials.

Fair Textbooks: A Resource Guide. 1979. Washington, D.C.: United States Commission on Civil Rights. Clearinghouse Publication 61.

This guide presents an extensive collection of resources designed to promote fairness in public school education. Entries are classified in four categories: Material Resources, Procedural Resources, Directories, and Organizational Resources. Resources under each of these categories have been organized into subsections by type of material, subject area, grade and age level. Entries are coded for ethnic group, grade level and subject area. Users will find codes and indexes to help them locate the resources that are more relevant to their special interest.

Final Report of the Minority Role Stereotyping Sub-Task Force of the State Superintendents' Task Force on Freedom for Individual Development: Role Stereotyping in Wisconsin's Schools. 1976. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin State Dept. of Public Instruction. Madison. ERIC ED 173479.

This report addresses the effects of stereotyping on minorities and offers recommendations for eliminating minority role stereotyping. Appendixes C and E present guidelines for evaluating instructional materials for sexism and racism and background materials on the stereotyping of various minority groups.

A Guide for Evaluation of Instructional Materials Under Chapter 622. 1975. Boston, Massachusetts: Massachusetts State Dept. of Education. ERIC ED 159215.

This booklet was designed to aid educators in identifying stereotyping in materials presently in use and in evaluating prospective curriculum materials. Checklists for the evaluation of curriculum materials are presented. An annotated list of bibliographies on teaching materials, children's books, audio-visual materials, reference works and information sources is included.

Guidelines for Establishing Equity in Language and Illustrations. 1979. Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency. ERIC ED 176914.

This booklet of guidelines explores the nonsexist treatment of women and men, the portrayal of minority groups, the representation of handicapped persons, and stereotypes in illustrations.

Guidelines for Creating Positive Sexual and Racial Images in Educational Materials. 1975. New York, N.Y.: Macmillan Co. ERIC ED 117687.

These guidelines have been developed to help authors, artists, and editors cope with the challenge of creating educational materials that give children an unbiased view of human potential. The guidelines suggest ways of avoiding both racial and minority stereotypes in texts and illustrations, and include general content as well as content for specific groups (Black Americans, American Indians, Hispanic Americans, Asian Americans and Jewish Americans). Also included are guidelines for avoiding sex and race stereotyping in content areas such as social studies, literature, language arts, foreign language, home economics, mathematics, science and music.

Hanson, G. 1978. *A Guide to Assessing Minority and Sex Role Stereotyping in Elementary and Secondary Schools. Revised.* Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Dept. of Public Instruction. Office of Equal Education Opportunities. ERIC ED 159300.

This guide, designed to help educators examine minority and sex role stereotyping in the schools, contains a list of resources to combat stereotypes. A discussion of the subtle presence of minority and sex role stereotyping is substantiated by a number of analyses of textbooks which have found minority groups and women underrepresented and inaccurately portrayed.

The annotated bibliographies are separated into two general categories: minority role stereotyping and sex role stereotyping. Entries in these bibliographies are coded according to the topics and general use of the annotation. The codes are presented in Appendix A.

Henriksen, E. and Patton, W. 1976 *Guidelines for Using Racist/Sexist Materials in the Classroom*. Ohio: Kent State University ERIC ED170429.

This document offers strategies and lesson plans to counter biases in instructional materials. The practices outlined focus on recognizing the often overlooked contributions of women and minorities to American society.

Hornburger, J.M. et al. 1977. *Teaching Multicultural Children*. Boston, Massachusetts: Boston University. School of Education. ERIC ED 139045.

Designed to assist school personnel in the selection of materials appropriate for all children, including minority children, this handbook provides listings of teacher resources, an annotated bibliography of books for minority children, guidelines for analyzing books for racism and sexism, and multicultural publications for teachers of reading.

Interracial Digest, Number 1. 1974. New York, N.Y.: Council on Interracial Books for Children, Inc. ERIC ED 103504.

This collection of articles appeared in the Bulletin, a publication of Interracial Books for Children. Its purposes are to evaluate trade and instructional materials focusing on racist and sexist content and to suggest alternative materials for home and classroom.

Morris, J. and Verble, S. 1981. *Racism/Sexism in Educational Materials*. Wichita Falls, Texas: OHOYO Resource Center.

This compilation of material is for use in the identification of ethnic and sex bias in instructional materials portraying Native Americans and other minority groups.

Multi-Ethnic Curriculum in the Schools. 1975. New York, N.Y.: Columbia University, General Assistance Center for Equal Educational Opportunity. ERIC ED 126176.

This booklet is intended to help teachers keep in touch with some of the strategies and criteria for planning and executing multiethnic programs. Among the articles included is one which explores classroom use of multiethnic material. The last two articles focus on racism and stereotyping in textbooks and the development of criteria for evaluating materials dealing with minority cultures.

Rosenoff, E.W. et al. 1975. *Perspectives on School Print Materials: Ethnic, Non Sexist and Others*. San Francisco, Calif.: Far West Lab for Educational Research and Development. ERIC ED 114213.

Validity of information, balance, unity and realism are the criteria suggested as a basis to help school personnel in their selection of print materials. These criteria are described and applied from the perspectives of the Native American, the Mexican American, the Black American, the Chinese American; also from the women's point of view, and from the perspective of other minority groups. Guidelines for Evaluating Curriculum Materials and Ten Quick Ways to Analyze Books for Racism and Sexism are appended.

Sadker, M. P. and Sadker, D.M. 1977. *Now Upon a Time*. New York, N.Y.: Harper and Row, Publishers.

Now Upon a Time discusses how societal values and issues are presented in children's books. Of particular interest to educators concerned with the portrayal of minorities in children's books is the chapter entitled the American Mosaic, which analyzes the treatment of various ethnic minorities in selected children's books. Some books involving minority females are discussed.

Taking Sexism out of Education. 1978. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

The series of articles in this publication of the National Project on Women in Education discusses important aspects of sex bias in education. Although the focus is not on the education of minority females, the articles on sex bias in the curriculum, the role of the counselor and the effect of sexism in television should prove of interest to teachers who are working toward sex and race equity in education.

Taxel, J. 1978. Justice and Cultural Conflict: Racism Sexism and Instructional Materials Interchange: *A Journal of Educational Studies* 9: 56-84.

This report discusses censorship of textbooks and reading materials for school children. The author questions the belief that the content of literacy and curriculum materials can be discussed in isolation from the ideologies that they consciously or unconsciously represent.

Window Dressing on the Set: Women and Minorities in Television. 1977. Washington, D.C.: Commission on Civil Rights. ERIC ED 144115.

This document focuses on two issues of civil rights in broadcasting: the portrayal of minorities and women in television programs and the employment of minorities and women by television stations.

According to this report, data show that despite some progress, minorities and women continue to be underrepresented both in the dramatic presentation and on staff at local stations.

Wirtenberg, J. 1978. *Cultural Fairness in Materials Development.* Paper presented at the Skills Workshop of the Women's Educational Equity Act Program, Washington, D.C. ERIC ED 181154.

This report states that research in the area of textbook bias indicates: 1) racial prejudice has a negative impact on the development of minority children, and 2) non-academic aspects of reading content, including sex-typing and minority representation, influence a wide range of factors related to children's achievement in school. The author suggests that textbooks should not avoid, distort, idealize or romanticize issues related to minorities.

Part Two

Counseling, Career Education, and Guidance of Minority Girls

Atkinson, K. 1979. *Eliminating Sex Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education.* Michigan: Western Michigan Univ. Center for Women's Services. ERIC ED 174773.

Three hundred fifty-nine career development and vocational resources were reviewed in twenty Michigan secondary schools and area vocational centers. Career and counseling materials were found to be biased in work role expectations. Sex stereotyping was found to be more prevalent in work settings. As for minorities, representation was found primarily in illustrations and context rather than in language. The reviewers concluded that in general vocational and career guidance materials perpetuated traditional expectations for women and minorities. A twenty-two item instrument designed for assessing sex role and race stereotyping in learning resources is appended.

Ayala-Vazquez, N. 1976. Guidance and counseling of Spanish background girls. In *Conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of Hispanic Woman.* Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education.

The author contends that contrary to the traditional counseling principle of avoiding personal involvement with the client, in counseling Hispanic girls personal involvement is generally more effective. Also, within Hispanic society, the counselor is expected to take on a more direct role in advising and offering support to the counselee. Counseling Hispanic girls also calls for an understanding of the conflicts imposed by the two cultures.

Britton, G. 1977. *Career-Sex Race Analysis Kit.* Corvallis, Oregon: Britton and Associates, Inc. ERIC ED 164567.

This kit provides strategies for the evaluation of sex/race biases and career biases in materials for reading, literature and social studies curricula. The procedure includes: assessing the number of careers portrayed by sex and ethnic groups and the number of major characterics by sex and race. Sample summary forms are included.

Britton, G. and Lumpkin, M. 1977. *A Consumer's Guide to Sex, Race and Career Bias in Public School Textbooks.* Corvallis, Oregon: Britton and Associates, Inc. ERIC ED 162352.

This document contains a textbook analysis kit and the analyses of 49 reading, literature, and social studies materials. The analyses reveal evidence of sexism and racism in textbooks in spite of publishers' guidelines to eliminate these biases from their products. Three appendices include the list of textbooks analyzed, references, and a list of organizations concerned with racism and sexism.

Brooks, L.P. 1976. *Developing Communications and Program Strategies in Career Guidance for Ethnic Minorities.* Palo Alto, California: American Institute for Research in the Behavioral Sciences. ERIC ED 140204.

This six-hour module is designed to help school personnel develop strategies for assisting ethnic minority students to cope with the specific problems they encounter when planning a career. Activities in the module include strategies for improving verbal and non-verbal communication, self-concept and career management. Related Document ED 140203.

Costick, R.M. et al. 1978. *Nonsexist Career Counseling for Women: Annotated Selected References and Resources.* Part I. San Francisco, California: Far West Lab. for Educational Research and Development. ERIC ED 158212.

This is a two-part bibliography of nonsexist career counseling for women which is designed to provide resources for counselors, counselor educators, teachers and others desiring to facilitate positive, non-stereotyped career awareness and development for women at secondary and post-secondary educational levels. One section contains information on counselor training and professional development, counseling resources, career interest measurements, and minority women. The second section on minority women is primarily a compilation of the entries related to minority women found in other sections throughout the two-part bibliography on career counseling.

Diamond, E.E., ed. 1975. *Issues of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Measurement.* McLean, Virginia: Aries Corp. ERIC ED 113609.

This publication contains a series of articles dealing with topics related to sex bias and sex fairness in career interest inventories. Guidelines for the evaluation of career interest inventories are presented. Sex bias and black women is the subject of Chapter VII.

Etheridge, R.M. and Rice, E. 1976. *Eliminating Sexism: Rewriting the Scripts. An Informational Guide to Sex Stereotyping, Sex Bias and Sex Discrimination.* Instructor's Manual. Chapel Hill, N.C.: System Sciences, Inc. ERIC ED 160753.

This is part of a series of programs devoted to the identification and evaluation of strategies for use with secondary students, teachers or administrators to help eliminate sex stereotyping and sex bias in vocational education programs. Unit Four deals with sex stereotyping and minority groups, with emphasis on the double discrimination suffered by minority women.

Fauth, G.C. and Jacobs, J.E. 1980. Equity in mathematics education: the educational leader's role, *Educational Leadership* 37: 485-490.

Research findings suggest that sex differences in mathematics achievement are largely a cultural phenomenon. Strategies are suggested to achieve equal educational opportunity for women and minority students in mathematics education.

Finley, C. n.d. *Choices and Careers; Free to Choose: Women Today and Tomorrow.* Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin University, Madison Univ. Extension. ERIC ED 158941.

Changes in traditional roles for Native American women call for preparing young tribal women to choose and plan their future

careers. The conditions of Native American women in the labor force are discussed and some of the reasons for these conditions are explored. The need for training in non-traditional careers is emphasized.

Hernandez, A. 1977. *Enriching Self Concept Counseling for Chicanas. Project Mexico.* Los Angeles, California: California University. Latin American Center ERIC ED 134294.

This document describes a group counseling program geared to strengthening Chicanas' self-concepts and group identity. Activities such as discussion of personal topics, development of college survival skills and analysis of cultural advantages and disadvantages are seen as key to the accomplishment of the counseling objectives.

Hernandez, L. and Carlquist-Hernandez, K. 1979. Counseling insights for bilingual students — Practice examples, *Bilingual Resources* 3: 8-12.

The authors outline an approach to deal with bilingual Hispanic students which takes into account both the culture of the student and the dominant culture. This model is based on the premise that bilingual children, who often face problems related to cultural differences between the home and the school environments, should be helped to become bicognitive, bicultural, and assertive. Strategies for implementing the model are described.

Majchrzak, S. 1976. *Preparing Young Women for Tomorrow: A Handbook of Career Counseling Strategies for Intermediate and High School Women.* Monograph #9. Fullerton, Calif.: California Personnel and Guidance Association. ERIC ED 177389.

Although not specifically prepared for counseling minority girls, the strategies and resources described in this handbook will help counselors develop open attitudes in training all women in non-stereotyped careers.

Medina, C. and Reyes, M.R. 1976. Dilemmas of Chicana Counselors, *Social Work* 21: 515-517.

The Spanish-speaking client is separated from a counselor by more than just language barriers. The authors discuss the cultural characteristics implicit in the Hispanic tradition that may diminish the difficulties of Chicana counselors.

Miller, S.W. 1980. *Resources for Achieving Sex Equity: An Annotated Bibliography.* L.A., California: Los Angeles Community College District. ERIC ED 183230.

This bibliography deals with sex equity in vocational education. Of special interest to persons concerned with issues related to minority women is the section entitled "Working Women: Historical and Ethnic Perspectives." It contains works by and about minority women, their struggles, contributions and educational needs.

Nichols, N.P. 1976. *The Role of Guidance in Business Education.* Harrisburg, Pa.: Pennsylvania Dept. of Education, Bureau of Vocational and Technical Education. ERIC ED 160831.

This guide for secondary school business teachers and school counselors is to be used in assisting students to make career choices. It contains discussions of job counseling strategies and the development of specialized business education programs.

Chapter 4 discusses the need for counselors to become familiar with career opportunities for minorities.

Norton, R.E. et al. 1975. *Career Education and Minorities. Staff Development in Career Education for the Elementary School: Module 7.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Center for Vocational and Technical Education. ERIC ED 115975

This is part of a series of modules designed to help educators in the planning of career education programs. This module is to be used to raise awareness of racism and sex stereotyping in career education for minorities.

Skypek, D.H. 1980. Girls need mathematics too, *Arithmetic Teacher* 27: 4-7.

Although not specifically related to minority girls, this article examines the factors which contribute to sex differences in mathematics performance. It stresses the importance of the role of the elementary teacher in helping females become confident in their ability to succeed in mathematics. The course of action suggested to teachers applies equally to females of all ethnic groups.

Recruiting Women for Traditionally "Male" Careers: Programs and Resources for Getting Women into the Men's World. 1977. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges, Project on the Status and Education of Women. ERIC ED 145256.

This paper describes programs and resources to recruit women for non-traditional careers at colleges and universities. The last section lists programs and resources directed to the recruitment of minority women.

Stevenson, G. 1975. Counseling black teenage girls, *Occupational Outlook Quarterly* 19: 3-13

This article reviews statistics and research concerning the unemployment problems of black girls and suggests counseling techniques to help improve employment prospects for black girls. It includes resources counselors may use to develop education programs to inform black teenage girls of the world of work, and of job and career opportunities they have open to them.

Strategies for Equality: Guidance, Social Studies, Physical Education. 1978. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers, The State Univ. Training Inst. for Sex Desegregation of the Public Schools. ERIC ED 162027.

Descriptions of projects developed by participants in training workshops for non-discriminatory curriculum development are presented here. Among the social studies projects listed, a study of women in history based on Susan B. Anthony's biography is described.

Strong, L.M. *Choices and Careers; Free to Choose: Being an Indian Woman-Unit for Adults. Leader's Guide.* Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Univ., Madison Univ. Extension. ERIC ED 158936.

This manual has been designed to promote the discussion of traditional roles of Indian women and to compare them with the new roles of today. It provides a linkage between some of the traditional roles (such as medicine women and story tellers) and modern roles (such as doctors and teachers). This leader's guide is part of the series entitled "Choices and Careers: Free to Choose." The background paper entitled "Being an Indian Woman" was written by Carol Dodge, a Menominee. An accompanying slide presentation about famous Indian women is available on loan from the director of the Career Development Project for Tribal Girls, Division of Community Programs Cooperative, Extension Programs, University of Wisconsin-Extension, 432 North Lake Street, Madison, Wisconsin, 53706.

Vasquez de Benario, M. and Sherman, R.Z. 1980. *Trabajamos: A Bilingual/Multicultural Career Awareness and Language Enrichment Program.* Newton, Massachusetts: Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center.

These two self-contained teaching kits, one in Spanish and one in English, present twelve school and community helpers in non-sex-stereotyped occupations. The purpose of the kit is to develop self-awareness, decision making abilities and occupational awareness for the Hispanic female while maintaining the child's culture and language. Each kit contains a teacher's guide, career posters, classroom activities, and evaluation materials.

Vetter, L. 1975. *Women in Illustrations or Society is Myopic. Sex Stereotyping in Illustrations in Career Materials.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Chicago, Illinois.

An assessment of the representation of women workers in illustrations was conducted on 1901 vocational guidance materials and

168 career education materials. Variables included in the assessment were: 1) number of men and women; 2) environmental setting (indoor-outdoor); 3) observable interaction among people illustrated; 4) minority group; 5) minority group by sex; 6) occupation by sex: and 7) occupation by minority group. Results of the analysis indicate that the current status of women in careers is not accurately represented in career materials.

Part Three

Background Information about Minority Women of Various Ethnic Groups

Baker, G.C et al. 1977. *Multicultural Education: Teaching About Minority Women.* Special Current Issues Publication No. 8. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education. ERIC ED 142509.

This document discusses the responsibilities of teacher education programs in dealing with the problems of sexism and racism. The problems and perspectives of Native American, Mexican American, Black American, and Japanese American women are explored.

Cabello-Argandona, R. 1975. *The Chicana: A Comprehensive Bibliographic Study.* Los Angeles, California: Chicana Studies Center, Publications. ERIC ED 122988.

This bibliography contains materials published between 1928 and 1974 and covers such topics as: civil rights, culture, demography, economics, education, family structure, sex roles, health practices and conditions, literature, the church's role and social conditions of the Chicana.

Chapa, E. et al. 1976. *La Mujer Chicana: An Annotated Bibliography, 1976.* Austin, Texas: Chicana Research and Learning Center. ERIC ED 152439.

This document provides an extensive listing of resources and information about the Chicana. The bibliography cites 320 materials published between 1916-1975, the majority being from 1960-1975. Among the subject areas included in the twelve sections of this publication are: Chicana feminism and "el movimiento"; labor/employment; the family; machismo; sex-role stereotyping; and "Third World Women." Other topics covered are the problems Chicanas face in education; historical events which occurred before 1960; Chicana involvement in literature and art.

Conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of American Indian Women. 1976. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Institute of Education.

This publication contains the papers and recommendations which were presented for discussion during the Conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of American Indian Women, held in Albuquerque, New Mexico in October, 1976. The papers examine many of the problems American Indian women face in education, employment, health and women's roles in today's society.

Conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of Black Women. Volume 2: Research Papers. 1978. U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Institute of Education.

This is a compendium of the papers which were presented at the conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of Black Women. The nine papers examine the barriers to educational and occupational equity faced by black women. Educational and occupational statistics on black women are appended.

Conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of Hispanic Women. 1980. No. 5. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, National Institute of Education

This publication contains the papers and recommendations which were presented at the conference on the Educational and Occupational Needs of Hispanic Women held in December 1976. The papers discuss the common goals and aspirations of Hispanic women

in general, as well as some of the unique needs and cultural heritages of women in specific Hispanic communities in the United States.

Cotera, M. 1976. *Profile of the Mexican American Woman*. University Park, New Mexico State University. ERIC ED 119888.

This monograph discusses the role of the Mexican American woman in the making of history from Mexico's Pre-Columbian days to the 1960's, the Chicana's experience and achievements in the United States and her conditions today. A bibliography and list of organizations concerned with Chicana issues are appended.

Doyle, N. 1974. *Woman's Changing Place: A Look at Sexism*. Public Affairs Committee, Inc. ERIC ED 097245.

This Public Affairs document reviews the factors that limit women's development and opportunities as well as women's efforts to effect change in their lives and in society. The plight of the minority woman is briefly discussed.

Garcia, O.L. 1978. *Chicano Studies Curriculum Guide, Grades 9-12*. New Mexico: New Mexico State University, University Park. ERIC ED 151138.

This document is intended to give Chicanas a balanced view of themselves, make them aware of their rich heritage, and enable them to understand themselves and their community. Topics included in the guide are Chicanas in literature and Chicanas in music.

Green, R. 1981. *Native American Women: A Bibliography*. Wichita Falls; Texas: OHOYO Resource Center.

This extensive bibliography featuring over 500 entries on the subject of Native American women, includes a section which describes the creative works by and about Native American women.

Huang, J. and Wong, S.Q., eds. 1977. *Chinese Americans: Realities and Myths Anthology. Secondary Curriculum Kit*. San Francisco, California: Association of Chinese Teachers. ERIC ED 155269.

This resource anthology contains articles and documents dealing with the Chinese American experience. Stereotypes stemming from political, racial and linguistic characteristics, and the stereotypes of Asian women are discussed in the last section. The materials are for use in secondary school classrooms.

Kumagai, G.L. 1978. *The Asian Woman in America*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference on Ethnic and Minority Studies, La Crosse, Wisconsin. ERIC ED 164630.

Asian women in America have suffered the double burden of sexism and racism, which perpetuates their low status position. This situation is aggravated by the lack of positive role models and the reinforcement of stereotypes by the media. This paper suggests that educational institutions can help rectify this situation by re-examining textbooks for sex and race bias against Asian women, and by offering bilingual education programs, teacher awareness training and parent communication workshops.

Lenwood, G.D. 1975. *The Black Woman in American Society: A Selected Annotated Bibliography*. Boston, Massachusetts: G.K. Hall and Co.

Entries in this bibliography deal with the struggles and achievements of black women in the United States.

Lindborg, K. and Ovando, C.J. 1977. *Five Mexican American Women in Transition: A Case Study of Migrants in the Midwest*. San Francisco, California: R and E Research Associates, Inc. ERIC ED 168740.

Key aspects of the experience of the Mexican American woman are identified through case studies of five Mexican American women, four of whom are migrant farmworkers and one of whom is a recent immigrant from Mexico.

Lord, S.B. and Patton-Crowder, C. 1979. *Appalachian Women: A Learning/Teaching Guide*. Knoxville, Tennessee: Dept. of Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee.

This document provides information on the experiences, status and environment of Appalachian women. A section on the educational and counseling needs of Appalachian women is included.

Malcolm, S.M., Hall, P.Q. and Brown, J.W. 1975. *The Double Bind: The Price of Being a Minority Woman in Science*. Washington, D.C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science.

This report summarizes the experiences of minority female scientists from four ethnic groups: black, Mexican-American, Native American and Puerto Rican. The report delineates recommendations for future action to enhance the educational experience of minority women.

Medicine, B. 1978. *The Native American Woman: A Perspective*. New Mexico: New Mexico State Univ., University Park. ERIC ED 151122.

This book presents the Native American woman from varied perspectives. The six chapters in the book cover the Native American woman from the anthropological, ethnographic and historical perspectives; the challenges of contemporary Native American women; and biographical accounts by Bonnin and Qouyawyma, Native American women who have faced the challenges of today's changing roles.

Native American Women: A Selected Topics Bibliography of ERIC Documents. 1977. New Mexico: New Mexico State University, University Park, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. ERIC ED 152472.

This 50-item bibliography provides a guide to resource materials, research findings and developments related to Native American women. Entries listed were published between 1968 and 1976. Topics covered include role models, post secondary education, counseling programs, employment and cultural education.

Pido, A.J.A. 1978. *A Cross Cultural Change of Gender Roles: the Case of Filipino Women Immigrants in Midwest City, U.S.A.* Paper presented at the Annual Conference of Ethnic and Minority Studies, University of Wisconsin, La Crosse, Wisconsin. ERIC ED 159244.

This paper examines perceptions and attitudes related to women in the Phillippines and assesses how these perceptions and attitudes are affected by migration to the United States.

Portello, C. et al. 1976. *Bibliography of Writings on La Mujer*. Berkeley, California: California Univ., Chicano Studies Library. ERIC ED 164216.

This bibliography lists works about Chicanas in the U.S., with some reference to books and articles that discuss Mexicanas and women in general. Among the areas covered are the arts, education, sociology, economics, history, health and literature. Most materials were published between 1960 and 1976, but some earlier publications are also cited. Part I contains documents pertaining to La Mujer. Part II contains a variety of articles relevant to Chicanas and to women in general.

Sexism and Racism: Feminist Perspectives. 1974. Civil Rights Digest. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

This issue of the Civil Rights Digest contains various articles in which the status of women from different ethnic groups is analyzed. The issue also contains "A Resource List For Women" where Research Centers, Institutes and Clearinghouses are listed. An annotated list of selected books and articles about minority women of different ethnic groups is appended.

Stanley, S. and Wagner, N.N., eds. 1973. *Asian-Americans: Psychological Perspectives*. Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books, Inc. ERIC ED 098275.

This document provides an overview of

the Asian American experience. Parts One, Two and Five of the book include articles pertaining to the Asian American woman and her changing roles in contemporary society.

Strong, L.M. n.d. *Choices and Careers: Free to Choose: Being an Indian Woman*. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin University. University Extension. ERIC ED 158937.

Written by an Oneida woman, this document which analyzes the role of the woman in the Woodland tribe dispels the erroneous concept of the Native American woman as the "poor squaw." This document also features suggested activities for Native American women to conduct with their daughters.

Wheat, V. 1978. *Hispanic Women and Education: Annotated Selected References and Resources*. San Francisco, California: Women's Educational Equity Communications Network. ERIC ED 164246.

This bibliography cites 82 selected references and resources pertaining to Hispanic women. It includes bibliographies, overviews and statistical profiles, curriculum materials, evaluation of materials, perspectives on education, and publications dealing with the participation of Hispanic women in the labor force and the social, psychological and cultural conflicts they face. The materials cited were published between 1969 and 1978.

Women in new history texts. 1976, *Interracial Books for Children Bulletin* 7: 4-7. ERIC ED 134635.

Issue #7 of the Interracial Books for Children Bulletin contains three articles, including an analysis of racism and sexism in new history textbooks.

Part Four

Other Resources

Goodman, S., ed. 1978. *Resources on Women*. Longmeadow, Ma: Department of Humanistic and Behavioral Studies of Boston University.

This extensive bibliography was compiled as a special project for a directed study course on the education and psychosocial development of women. Entries are classified under several categories. Of special interest to persons concerned with issues related to minority women are entries classified under "Research Bibliographies," "Women's Studies Resources" and the "Partially Annotated Research Bibliography: Sex Roles, Sexism, Non-Sexism". This last category includes an Annotated Bibliography of Non-Sexist Picture Books for Children.

Shaffer, S.M. 1980. *Spotlight on Sex Equity: A Filmography*. Washington, D.C.: the Mid Atlantic Center for Sex Equity. The American University.

This annotated listing of sex equity media resources includes descriptions of films, slide-tape presentations and filmstrips. The filmography is divided into various categories, and entries are cross-referenced. The resources under Multi-Ethnic and Women's Achievements and Experiences are particularly relevant to teachers of minority girls.

Shaffer, S. and Gordon, B. 1980. *Resource Notebook*. Washington, D.C.: the Mid-Atlantic Center for Sex Equity. The American University.

This notebook includes materials, organizations and general resources related to the achievement of sex equity and the implementation of Title IX directives. The first section describes services provided by organizations concerned with Title IX and sex equity in the fields of legislation, teaching strategies, textbooks and instructional materials, vocational education, physical education, guidance and career development, community involvement, and personnel policies. This section also includes annotated listings of major publishers of sex equity materials and providers of sex equity services.

The second section contains descriptions of organizations which provide Title IX and sex equity resources.

Verheyden-Hilliard, M.E. 1976. *A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality in Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association.

The purpose of this handbook is to help counselors, teachers and administrators become aware of the need to rid guidance programs of sex role stereotyping, develop sensitivity to the myths and stereotyping that perpetuate sex bias and sex discrimination, recognize the double discrimination suffered by minority girls and women, recognize the need for attitudinal and behavioral change in one's own sex role stereotyping, and develop a commitment to encourage others to change.

SELECTED SOURCES

Council on Interracial Books for Children
1841 Broadway
New York, NY 10023
(212) 757-5339

Publishes a bulletin in which children's books and other materials are analyzed for sex and race bias.

Information Systems Development
1100 East 8th Street
Austin, TX 78702
(512) 477-1604

This organization has developed a data base information on ethnic women in the United States.

KNOW, Inc.
P.O. Box 86031
Pittsburgh, PA 15221
(412) 241-4844

This firm has published information dealing with race and sex bias in education.

Lollipop Power
Box 1171
Chapel Hill, NC 27514
(919) 929-4857

A feminist publisher, Lollipop Power has developed workshops and media presentations on the effects of race and sex stereotyping.

Multicultural / Multiethnic Women Studies Program
Berkeley Unified School District
1720 Oregon Street
Berkeley, CA 94703
(415) 644-6274

Publications include curricular units which focus on the role of women in today's society and the recognition of the achievements of women from different ethnic backgrounds.

National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs
1832 M Street, N.W. Suite 821
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 653-5846

Established by the Women's Educational Equity Act, this council publishes an annual report and special reports on issues concerning both women in general and minority women in particular.

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We would appreciate your comments and suggestions for changes or additions on this module. Your feedback will help us prepare a more comprehensive final edition.

1. I find this module to be _____ very useful/ _____ somewhat useful/ _____ not useful for me professionally.
2. I find this module to be _____ very useful/ _____ somewhat useful/ _____ not useful for me personally.
3. I find this module to be _____ very clearly presented/ _____ somewhat clearly presented/ _____ not clearly presented.
4. I find this module to be _____ very informative/ _____ somewhat informative/ _____ not informative.
5. I find this module to be _____ very readable/ _____ somewhat readable/ _____ not readable.
6. I was most impressed with:

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

7. I feel the following changes should be made in order to make this module more useful:

   _____

   _____

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8. This module will be most useful to me in my role as _____

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